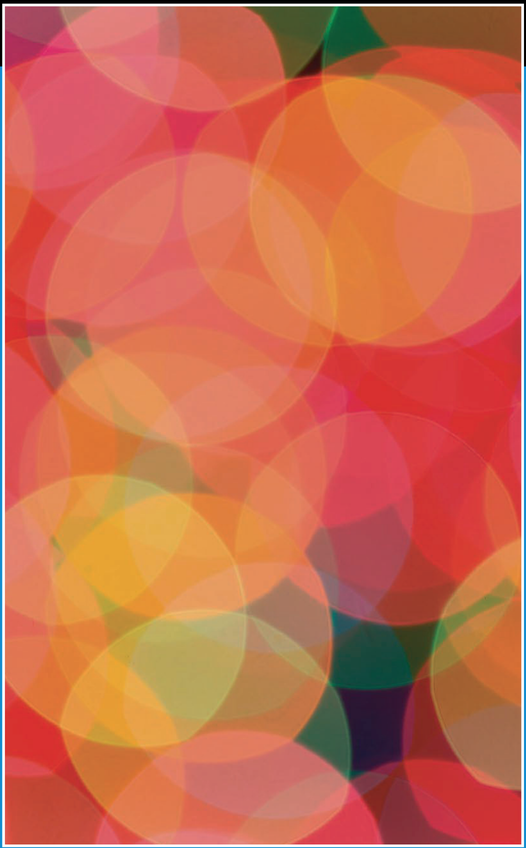
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Pál Heltai

Hungarian–English Linguistic Contrasts

A practical approach



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To Éva H. Stephanides

CONTENTS

FOREWORD

This book is intended for students of English in Hungarian universities whose study programs include a course in Contrastive Linguistics (CL). It may also be useful to practising teachers and translators.

Around the middle of the 20^{th} century, CL set out as applied linguistics, claiming to be able to solve all the problems of foreign language teaching by comparing the phonological and grammatical structures of the learners' native language (L1) and the foreign or second language (L2). However, it soon transpired that foreign language learning does not depend solely on overcoming the difficulties caused by differences in phonological and grammatical structure: learners must also acquire communicative competence in L2, and that besides L1–L2 contrasts the process of language learning is affected by a number of other factors, such as individual variability, order of learning, level of proficiency, etc. As a result, the usefulness of contrastive linguistics for language learning and teaching was challenged, and with the advent of the communicative approach in foreign language teaching CL fell into disfavour and disuse.

In response to the criticisms levelled against it, CL developed in new directions. One direction was abandoning its practical orientation and developing into a theoretical research field; another was extending its boundaries beyond phonology and grammar, taking into consideration the results of such emerging linguistic disciplines as discourse analysis and pragmatics.

Second-language teaching today is dominated by the communicative approach, which does not pay too much attention to L1–L2 contrasts. However, there is no doubt that linguistic contrasts play a role in language learning, particularly at the advanced level and in L1–L2 translation. For trainee teachers it is important to be aware of L1–L2 contrasts, since knowing to what extent the mother tongue impacts the acquisition of various elements of a second or foreign language may help them identify and understand the learners' difficulties that may be due to these contrasts. In general, it is considered that comparing L1 and L2 can help learners to achieve the grammatical awareness needed in some tasks, such as translation, which crucially depends on overcoming linguistic (and cultural) contrasts. Therefore, CL must have a role in teacher and translator training (Heltai 2016).

Most foreign language degree courses at Hungarian universities include CL as a compulsory or optional course, particularly for students training to be teachers. However, it remains an open question what exactly a university course in CL should include. In teaching a course called *English–Hungarian*

Contrastive Studies at Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church from 2015 to 2020, the present author decided that it must contain some theory, but should not be too theoretical. There is no point in having a course on the history of CL and the details of the various theories proposed and refuted as well as the long forgotten controversies surrounding the development of the discipline if the course has nothing to do with the original aim of CL, i.e. helping foreign language teaching and learning. Developments in second language acquisition research and the practice of second and foreign language teaching have made many or most of the theoretical discussions on CL conducted in the 1960s to 1980s irrelevant. Therefore, the aim of a course in CL must be to acquaint students with those CL concepts that have retained their significance over the years, and to focus on those L1–L2 contrasts that have actually been found to impact learning. That is, a CL course should be about language contrasts (in this case, Hungarian–English linguistic contrasts) rather than about contrastive linguistics.

In view of the above, the original title of this coursebook (*English–Hungarian Contrastive Studies*) was changed to *Hungarian–English Linguistic Contrasts*, and the subtitle *A practical approach* was added to indicate that the course is designed to be of practical use, helping students to raise their metalinguistic awareness and to directly improve their linguistic competence in English. This endeavour explains the main features of this coursebook, in which practical usefulness takes precedence over theoretical discussion. The book is not a-theoretical: it does rely on linguistics and CL literature, including studies on Hungarian–English contrasts (some of the author's own), but it is not designed to be just another course in Linguistics. It tries to integrate as much theory as necessary with practice: most chapters start with practical examples to be discussed, and the various chapters consistently refer back to the basic theoretical concepts presented in the first two chapters, and plenty of exercises are provided. It is hoped that studying Hungarian–English linguistic contrasts in this way will benefit students more than a theoretical course would.

The first two chapters have been designed to give a summary of the most important principles and concepts proposed by classical contrastive analysis, highlighting those that have retained their relevance for foreign language teaching over the years: concepts like *divergent categories*, *transferability*, *primary counterpart*, etc. These two chapters provide the theoretical framework that is needed to explain how linguistic contrasts may impact foreign language learning.

Chapter 3 deals with contrasts between the Hungarian and English phonological systems. Upper-class students who have studied English phonology in their first year must have had lots of information on this topic, especially if they studied phonology from Nádasdy's coursebook (Nádasdy 2006), so what

this chapter can do is give a summary of the most important phonological and prosodic contrasts, and revisit the lexical component of pronunciation, including the pronunciation of long words and commonly mispronounced words (e.g. *adjective, determine, examine,* etc.).

Chapters 4 to 6 are concerned with grammatical contrasts. They are not intended to provide a systematic comparison of all the grammatical structures of English and Hungarian: this is neither possible nor necessary. There is a practically infinite number of grammatical contrasts between English and Hungarian, and it would be difficult to make a study of each, or to compare the whole of the grammatical systems of English and Hungarian as such. That would not be possible even if a comprehensive Hungarian–English contrastive grammar existed. (It does not.). And it is not possible because CL is a single-semester course, and there is no point in devoting all the time to grammatical contrasts at the expense of contrasts at other linguistic levels. There is simply not enough time: one must be selective, and the contrasts that must be selected are those that have been found to cause difficulty and/or error in teaching and translating practice.

A comprehensive, systematic grammatical comparison would also be unnecessary. Prospective users of this book will have studied English for over ten years and are familiar with most of the grammatical patterns of English and most of the differences between particular English and Hungarian grammatical structures. Some grammatical contrasts, however, are less well-known to students, especially those that occur mainly in written language and translation. In addition, some contrasts lead to fossilization, i.e. persistent errors, even at proficiency level. Therefore, these chapters offer a selection of such contrasts, made on the basis teaching experience. The terminology follows that used in *A Student's Grammar of the English Language* (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991). Since the area where contrasts appear to influence learners most is L1–L2 (Hungarian–English) translation, translation exercises are dominant in these chapters.

It is important to note that this book is not a *contrastive grammar*: it takes a look at Hungarian–English contrasts at several linguistic levels. Contrastive grammars of different language pairs, some dating back to the first wave of CL in the 1960s and some to more recent years, are usually confined to grammar and phonology. They can be regarded as handbooks that contain information on all (or most) grammatical and phonological contrasts, without assessing their importance for the content or method of language learning and the degree of difficulty and other factors that may influence learning.

In the second half of the 20th century it became clear that L1–L2 contrasts exist at all linguistic levels, and lexical, phraseological, textual (discoursal) and pragmatic contrasts are just as important as, or even more important than,

grammatical and phonological contrasts. Therefore, a university course should extend to contrastive lexicology, contrastive text linguistics and contrastive pragmatics, too. All the more so because *conscious* knowledge of lexical, textual and pragmatic contrasts is apparently more important and can help learners more than conscious knowledge of phonology and grammar, which may rely more on implicit learning than explicit explanation. For this reason, the current book includes, in addition to phonological and grammatical contrasts, a survey of Hungarian–English contrasts at the levels of vocabulary, phraseology, discourse and pragmatics, and also examines the role of contrasts in translation.

Chapter 7 is devoted to lexical, and Chapter 8 to phraseological contrasts. Much of the material included here is based on the author's previous research and experience in teaching courses in vocabulary, which explains the large number of practical exercises. These chapters provide some theoretical information on lexical semantics and multi-word units, too, but not more than is necessary for explanation, following the traditions of applied linguistics books, such as McCarthy's (1990).

Chapter 9 is concerned with textual contrasts. There are several well-known models of discourse production and comprehension (e.g. Kintsch and van Dijk 1978, Petőfi 2004, etc.). However, these are not contrastive studies of English and Hungarian discourse phenomena, and given the practical orientation of this coursebook, a detailed presentation of such general text linguistic models falls outside its scope. It must be selective and must confine its treatment of discourse to the most important basic concepts and such Hungarian–English contrasts in spoken and written discourse as have been found or may be assumed to play a part in foreign language teaching and learning. At the level of applied linguistics, *Discourse* by Cook (1989) provides a useful summary of the most important concepts of discourse analysis. More theoretically oriented information on non-contrastive aspects of text linguistics is considered irrelevant for the purposes of this coursebook.

Unfortunately, the literature on Hungarian–English discourse contrasts is limited: as a matter of fact, the present author was unable to find contrastive studies in this area, so much of the discussions on the possible difficulty of various text-building contrasts had to be based on the author's teaching and translating experience, and ultimately guesswork. Students are welcome to describe their own experience and carry out research.

Chapter 10 is devoted to contrastive pragmatics. There is an abundance of contrastive pragmatics studies on various speech acts and politeness phenomena, but as in the case of textual contrasts, although some studies on Hungarian–English pragmatic contrasts do exist (e.g. Furkó 2011), directly usable literature on differences in speech acts and politeness is missing. Therefore,

after a survey of some basic concepts in pragmatics, studies on other language pairs are presented, inviting students to draw their own conclusions relating to Hungarian and English. Issues of the importance and methods of teaching pragmatics are also discussed.

Chapter 11 deals with CL and translation. A summary of basic translation studies concepts is given. In studying this chapter readers can usefully refer back to earlier chapters, which sometimes overlap the material included here. Chapter 12 summarizes the most general differences between English and Hungarian.

It should be noted that, since the book covers contrasts at several linguistic levels, it may provide a good opportunity for students to recapitulate or complement some of the material covered earlier in their linguistics courses at the university – phonetics, syntax, lexicology, pragmatics and translation, showing the relevance of these disciplines for foreign language learning and teaching and providing an integrative framework through the study of CL.

As indicated above, this book is not intended to be a theoretical treatise or a scientific monograph, and its job is not to provide a detailed background to the various linguistic disciplines touched upon or to introduce students to the most important new developments in the field. Accordingly, the number of references to general linguistic theories is limited. In a similar way, it was considered unnecessary to give exact references to the sources of example sentences and texts from well-known literary pieces.

The book contains a large number of exercises and home assignments. Many of these involve translation into English, since linguistic contrasts have a particularly strong effect on L2–L2 translation, and creating communicative situations in which L1–L2 contrasts affect the linguistic forms used in L2 is a difficult task. Since there are probably more exercises than can be done and checked in class, it is up to the teacher running the course to decide which tasks they want to use or perhaps replace with better ones. The book provides a framework that can be expanded or downsized, depending on the time available.

Chapter 1
CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS

1.1 Languages are different at all levels – a preview

Learners of a foreign language will soon discover that their native language (L1) is different from the foreign language (L2). Indeed, if you compare two languages, you will see differences wherever you look: phonology, grammar, vocabulary, discourse patterns and pragmatics. Let us consider a few examples here.

Phonological differences

Compare /n/ and /ŋ/ in English and Hungarian. Discuss the following questions.

- Does /ŋ/ exist as a speech sound/phoneme in Hungarian/English?
- What is the difference?
- Is the *n* in the Hungarian words *nem*, *hintó*, *munka* and *sonka* pronounced in the same way?
- Can we pronounce the words *harang, mereng, villong* without pronouncing the final *g*?
- Do we pronounce the Hungarian word *ring* in the same way as English *ring*?
- How difficult is it for Hungarian learners to acquire the correct pronunciation of this English speech sound in final and midposition, in words like *sing, singer, singing, ring, ringing*?
- Do mistakes recur at later stages?

Grammatical differences

Translate the following sentences into English and note the differences. Compare the use of the definite article in Hungarian and English.

Az idő pénz. A tudás hatalom. Az élet nehéz. A farmer élete nehéz. A várost a honfoglalás idején alapították. Az erődöt a római időkben építették. A tej fehér, a fű zöld, a rózsa piros, az ibolya kék. A tejes letette a tejet a küszöbre. Piros bort ittam az este. A bor, amelyet tegnap este ittam, piros volt. Túl magas a fű, le kell vágnom. A víz túl hideg volt. Miért nő a fű, és miért üvölt az oroszlán?

How do you translate *olyan* into English?
A diplomata olyan ember, aki úgy tud elküldeni a pokolba, hogy előre örülni fogsz az utazásnak.
A tündérmese olyan horrortörténet, amely felkészíti a gyerekeket az újságolvasásra.
A bűn olyan cselekedet, amely erkölcsi szabályba ütközik.
A bűncselekmény olyan cselekedet, amely törvénybe ütközik.

Complete and translate into Hungarian. How many definite articles will there be in the English text and in the Hungarian translation?
In the very first Wonder of the Day, we learned that ___ flamingos are pink because of ___ pigments called ___ carotenoids found in the shrimp they eat. ___ C/carotenoids are also found in ___ red, orange, and yellow foods, such as ___ carrots, ___ tomatoes, and ___ egg yolks.
Much like ___ flamingos and ___ carrots, ___ grass contains a special pigment that gives it a green color. This pigment is called ___ chlorophyll.
___ C/chlorophyll is used during ___ photosynthesis. ___ P/photosynthesis is a process that takes place when a plant uses ___ sunlight to turn ___ carbon dioxide and ___ water into ___ sugar. Unlike ___ animals, which have to hunt for their food, ___ plants can create their own food using ___ sunlight. If you remove ___ most plants from ___ sunlight, they cannot produce ___ food and will eventually die.[1]
___ grass is always greener on the other side of the fence. (Proverb)

Lexical differences

1. Polysemy
Translate these two short texts into English.
A. Miért támad a bika, ha vörös színű kendőt lát?
Amint az köztudott, a bikaviadal még mindig rendkívül népszerű Spanyolországban. Rajongói hisznek abban, hogy a bikát bármilyen piros dolog feldühíti és támadásra készteti. Ezért a torreádornak vörös köpenyt kell a bika előtt meglengetnie, hogy felingerelje, méghozzá úgy, hogy a bika támadását elkerülje.

Az igazság az, hogy pontosan ugyanazt az eredmény érné el, ha fehér, zöld vagy akár fekete köpenyt használna. A bika ugyanis színvak.

B. Tűzesetek
Éppen burgonyát sütött magának egy birminghami tűzoltó, amikor egy esethez hívták. A derék ember félretolta a lábost, és rohant kötelességét teljesíteni. Hamarosan újabb tűzhöz hívták – az ő lakása égett. Elfelejtette ugyanis kikapcsolni a tűzhelyet.

[1] Source: http://wonderopolis.org/wonder/why-is-grass-green. Accessed 12.12.2022.

Comments: text a

- An important lexical contrast between languages is that most, if not all, words in all languages are **polysemous**, and the different meanings of a word may correspond to different words in another language. This is a major source of lexical errors, because we do not usually notice that the words of our native language are polysemous.

  Consider *bikaviadal*: it may correspond to *bullfight* or *bullfighting.* Can you find out which one is needed in this context?

  In a similar way, the Hungarian words *támad, kendő, rajongó, késztet, köpeny, meglengetni, elkerülni* are polysemous, and have several English correspondents. How can you find out which English correspondent of *kendő* and *köpeny* is used in English in the context of bullfighting?
- If you read English texts on bullfighting, you may find that occasionally a Spanish word is used to express the meaning "someone who admires or supports a person, sport, sports team, etc."[2] You may use it in this context.
- You will remember (from your study of descriptive English grammar) that animals may be referred to by the neutral pronoun *it*, or by the gendered pronouns *he* and *she* if we know what gender they are or if there is a personal relationship between them and humans. But how should we refer back to the *bull* in this context: *him* or *it*? Consult English grammars on the gender of animals and study parallel texts on bullfighting.
- If you read English texts on bullfighting, you will find that *torreádor* is not *toreador* in English.
- If you want to translate *Az igazság az* by *To tell the truth* – don't. You can use this phrase when you reluctantly admit the truth (synonymous with *Az igazat megvallva*). Here you have a different meaning, corresponding to a different phrase: *As a ….*
- A phraseological problem: *Támadásra készteti.*

comments: text b

- *Cook, bake, fry,* or *roast*? *Pot* or *pan?* Why? How do the manner of cooking and the utensil define each other? If you use one of the above words, how will it influence the translation of *burgonyát?*
- The phrase *when the alarm was raised* often occurs in English newspapers in connection with firefighters. Can you use it in this translation exercise?
- Was this *tűzoltó* a *fireman* or a *firefighter*? *Do, fulfil, discharge one's duty* – what is the difference? Does an exact equivalent of *derék* exist in English? *Égett* – is the verb *burn* the only solution?
- A grammatical point: which past tense is needed in translating *elfelejtette*? And if you use that tense, do you have to translate *ugyanis*? When is *namely* (the dictionary equivalent of *ugyanis*) used? If you insist on translating *ugyanis* with a separate word, what conjunctions can you use?

[2] Cambridge Dictionary, https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/fan. Last accessed 14.12.2022.

2. Compound words In Hungarian there are more compounds than in English. Hungarian learners tend to use compounds where English uses simple words. Consider these examples and discuss: Why do these errors occur?		
Hungarian: compound	English: simple word	Interlanguage (Hunglish): compound
íróasztal	*desk*	**writing table*
kutatómunka	*research*	**research work*
tűzhely	*stove, cooker*	**fireplace*

Pragmatic differences

What formulas do you use in particular situations? How do you say in English? *Ez többé nem fordul elő. Jó étvágyat! Elnézést, nem tudná megmondani, merre van az állomás? Elnézést, nem hallottam mit mondott.* What background knowledge do you need to interpret culture-bound references like this: *But apart from that, Mrs. Lincoln, how did you like the play?*

1.2 Classical Contrastive Linguistics

In the first half of the 20th century structural linguistics became the dominant paradigm in linguistics. Following Saussure (1916/1967), it focused its attention on the system of language (*langue*) as against its use (*parole*). The system of language was interpreted as a set of structural (grammatical and phonological) patterns, and linguistics was supposed to identify these patterns without reference to meaning.

Contrastive linguistics (also known as contrastive analysis, CA) developed in the 50s and early 60s of the 20th century, based on structural linguistics. It was intended to be *applied* linguistics: it was hoped that the results of (structural) linguistics could be *applied* in the teaching of foreign languages, making it more efficient. It was assumed that knowledge of a language (linguistic competence) was equivalent to *knowing the structural patterns* of that language, so learning a foreign language meant learning the structural patterns of that language. Therefore, the job of linguistics was to provide adequate descriptions of the structural patterns of the two languages, and the job of contrastive linguistics was to compare these descriptions, identifying the differences (the contrasts), so that learners could focus on practising the patterns that were

different from those of their native language. It was thought unnecessary to practise the patterns that were the same.

CL claimed that all the errors committed by learners and all the difficulties encountered in learning a foreign language were due to *linguistic contrasts.* Linguistic contrasts were supposed to inevitably lead to *interference:* the structures of the native language interfered with the learning of the second (foreign) language. To overcome the difficulties of language learning and to avoid errors it was necessary to identify the trouble spots, i.e. the contrasts, and to devise teaching materials that focused on these contrasts. Consequently, CL held that the most important element in foreign language teaching was the *teaching material:* contrastive linguists argued that the efficiency of language learning can only be improved by the use of *"scientific learning materials"* (Lado 1964). Scientific learning materials meant textbooks compiled on the basis of contrastive analysis.

The learning theory associated with CL was *behaviorism.* According to the latter, speaking a language was equal to exercising certain linguistic habits. When you learn a foreign language, you have to *unlearn your old habits and acquire new habits* (the 'linguistic habits' of L2). Interference from old habits and errors due to old habits were supposed to be harmful, so they had to be prevented by practising the correct patterns of L2. Errors were to be avoided at all costs because they would reinforce the old (bad) habits of learners.

Although behaviorism is no longer regarded as a valid scientific theory, it is worth giving consideration to the issue of learning new habits and unlearning old ones. If you are used to a certain type of car and switch to a different type where the controls are not exactly in the same place, you may at first look for the controls in their 'usual place', i.e. where you had them in your former car. That is, your old habits interfere with the habits required by the new car, and this interference will take time to overcome. The disastrous consequences of such interference have been attested in some air crashes, in which pilots flying an unfamiliar type of aircraft became confused when familiar instruments and controls were in unfamiliar locations on the panel or in the cockpit area. (The consequences of old habits interfering with new ones in foreign language learning are usually less disastrous.)

As mentioned above, CA wanted to furnish 'scientific learning materials' for language teaching based on a comparison of L1 and L2. CA was claimed to be able to predict areas of difficulty, and new habits were to be developed only in those areas where the new language was different from the old: structures that are the same do not have to be re-learned. Language learning is thus equal to learning the differences, and difficulties can be expected where there is a difference (Lado 1964).

From the 1960s on a number of contrastive projects started, mainly comparing English with some other language: Spanish, German, French, Italian, Danish, Polish, Finnish, etc. A list of books published in the wake of these projects

is given in *Appendix 1.* A large volume of papers resulting from the Hungarian–English contrastive project was published in 1980, edited by László Dezső and William Nemser. Further volumes, edited by Éva Stephanides, were published in the 1980s.

1.2.1 Hierarchies of difficulty

According to CL, learning difficulties are solely due to structural differences between the two languages, and they can be predicted from the extent and nature of differences. According to Ellis (1985), "contrastive analyses soon realised that there were *degrees* of similarity and difference". The following degrees of difference were identified (Ellis's examples have been replaced with Hungarian–English examples by the present author).

1. **No difference** between a feature of the first and second language: e.g., Hungarian /s/ is the same as English /s/: *szent – sent*;
2. **Convergent phenomena:** two items in the first language become coalesced into one in the L2, e.g., Hungarian *könyv* and *füzet* may both correspond to English *book*;
3. **An item in the first language is absent in the target language:** e.g., geminate consonants, definite and indefinite verb conjugation are present in Hungarian, but absent in English; culture specific words like *mákospatkó* and *disznótor* are absent in English;
4. **An item in the first language has a different distribution** from the equivalent item in the target language: e.g., velar /ŋ/ in Hungarian occurs only before /k/ and /g/, while in English it also occurs word-finally and medially, without a velar consonant following it; the word *fivér,* corresponding to *brother* in English, is less often used in Hungarian than *báty(ja)* and *öccs(e),* while the phrases *younger brother* and *older brother* are less often used in English than *brother*;
5. **No similarity** between first language feature and target language feature: e.g., in Hungarian negation is achieved by inserting the word *nem* before the verb (*"Nem tudom"*), whereas in English the word *not* has to be added to the auxiliary (*"I don't know"*);
6. **Divergent phenomena:** one item in the first language becomes two items in the target language, e.g., the Hungarian 3rd person pronoun *ő* diverges into *he* and *she* in English; Hungarian /e/ diverges into English /e/ and /æ/, and Hungarian *megtart* diverges into English *keep* and *hold.*

It was supposed that these linguistic differences lead to learning difficulty. "Hierarchies of difficulty" were proposed, e.g., by Stockwell, Bowen, and Martin (1965) and Prator (1967).

It was soon realised, however, that difficulty depends not only on linguistic but also on psychological considerations. In spite of this, it stands to reason to suppose that *differences may and do lead to difficulty,* although the degree of difficulty cannot be predicted on the basis of linguistic difference alone.

Let us examine the six categories shown above in some more detail. Number 1 is the case where there is no linguistic difference. An example is the Hungarian /s/ sound which is articulated in the same way as English /s/, so we do not have to learn how to pronounce English /s/. It seems clear that this is an easy learning task. Similarly, the Hungarian word *madár* corresponds to English *bird* in most contexts, so again learning and using *bird* correctly (at least in its basic meaning) is unlikely to cause great difficulty. Adjectival modifiers in Hungarian precede the noun, and they remain in the singular with a plural noun, just like in English. In French and Romanian they come after the noun, while in German and Russian they precede the noun but are pluralised before plural nouns. It is easy to guess that the Hungarian pattern can be transferred to English (positive transfer may work), and learning this pattern does not constitute a large learning task, while in the other above-mentioned languages the differences may lead to difficulty.

Convergent phenomena, or convergent categories (Number 2) were claimed to cause relatively little learning difficulty. Hungarian makes a distinction between *könyv* and *füzet*, while English often uses *book* as a correspondent of both words; the Hungarian words *vörös* és *piros* may both correspond to English *red*, and *oktatni* and *nevelni* may both correspond to English *educate*. Experience shows that such differences are indeed easy to handle. However, sometimes they may cause difficulty, e.g., when one wants to make a distinction in English between *oktatás* and *nevelés*, *sajt* and *túró*, or *cseresznye* and *meggy*.

In Number 3, we find cases where L2 lacks a structure or item that is present in L1. According to the hierarchy of difficulty, this difference usually causes moderate difficulty. In the present author's experience, this may be true in general, yet the degree of difficulty cannot be predicted: e.g., the difficulty of learning that the Hungarian endorsing item (*rámutatószó*) before clauses (*Tedd azt, amit akarsz – Do what you want*) has no equivalent in English may work out differently for different learners. In vocabulary learning and use, expressing or translating into English culturally bound terms (*disznótor, disznótoros, cifraszűr, díszmagyar,* etc.) may cause serious problems.

In Number 4, the distribution of structures or items is different, which can also cause moderate or more serious difficulties. Thus, for example, Hungarian has a velar /ŋ/, but its distribution (and phonemic status) is different from that of English /ŋ/. The distribution of various grammatical structures and lexical items may also show considerable differences (for example, the distribution of *content, satisfied* and *happy* is different from that of *elégedett* and *boldog,* and the distribution of *friend* is different from that of *barát*).

Number 5 is the case where L2 contains structures or items that bear no resemblance to or are completely absent from L1. Obviously, these cases cause serious difficulties in learning L2. Most English phonemes are absent from Hungarian (e.g., the dental fricatives or the glottal stop) or are partially different; the system of English aspects and tenses is completely different, and there are many lexical items that have no correspondents in Hungarian (see Chapter 5).

The term divergent phenomena (Number 6) refers to cases where one structure or item in L1 corresponds to two (or more) structures or items in L2. This causes the greatest difficulty, because the learner is obliged to make a choice where there is no choice in their mother tongue. It is well known, for example, that Hungarian-speaking students make mistakes in the use of the 3rd person pronoun *he/she* even at near native speaker proficiency, and find it more difficult to identify pronoun references if the identification of the referent depends solely on the pronoun *he* or *she*. From a practical point of view, polysemous words also appear to fall into this category: if L2 uses two different words for a single polysemous L1 word, trouble is bound to arise. In addition to considerable learning difficulty, divergence is a major source of error in using the foreign language even at advanced level: an interesting phrase used by a Hungarian chairperson at a conference in Hungary was **Keep your lecture*.

1.3 The decline of Contrastive Linguistics

During the late 1960s and early 1970s it became apparent that contrastive analysis did not correctly predict errors and learning difficulties: it predicted errors and/or difficulties where students did not make mistakes, and in other cases it did not predict errors and/or difficulty where they actually did (over- and underprediction). CA was also criticised because it was hooked on the phonological and grammatical *systems* of the two languages, to the exclusion of other levels, and it did not pay any attention to the *use* of language for communicative purposes. Moreover, it was stuck at the sentence level, and (mistakenly) it identified linguistic differences with learning difficulties.

The basic tenet of CL, that all errors are due to mother-tongue interference, was challenged. Error analysis (Corder 1967) showed that errors may be due to other factors: a significant portion of the errors previously considered to be due to interference were shown to be instances of communicative strategies deliberately used by the learners. The theory of *creative construction,* based on Chomsky's idea of universal grammar (Chomsky 1981), claimed that only an insignificant percentage of errors can be attributed to the effect of the mother tongue: the majority of errors are *developmental errors* that learners overcome on their own, marking their progress. As the grammatical system of every language is supposed to be based on universal grammar, students

follow a universal sequence in learning grammar regardless of their mother tongue ("the natural order of morpheme acquisition": see Dulay and Burt 1973, 1974, 1982). Dulay and Burt (1973) claimed that errors show the following distribution according to their origin:

1. Interference-like errors	3%
2. Developmental errors	85%
3. Unique errors	12%

They pointed out that difference (contrast) is a linguistic phenomenon, while learning difficulty is psychological, and the latter cannot be deduced automatically from the former; errors show no significant correlation with learning difficulty. The new theory evaluated errors more positively: errors are inherent in development, they mark the different stages of language acquisition, and we do not necessarily have to prevent them. While contrastive linguistics placed 'scientific learning materials' at the center of the learning process, the theory of creative construction placed the learner at the center and regarded learner variability as a major factor in learning difficulty.

The error counts in various studies differed widely. According to Littlewood (1984: 27), error analyses did not take into account the fact that very often errors cannot be clearly attributed to one factor or another.

As a result of the criticisms levelled against CL, it fell into disfavour and disuse in language pedagogy. In response to the criticisms, CL developed in new directions. One direction was abandoning its practical orientation and developing into a theoretical research field; another was taking on board the results of such emerging linguistic disciplines as discourse analysis and pragmatics. Within the area of second language acquisition research, classical contrastive analysis was replaced by the study of *crosslinguistic influences.* This research trend, initiated by Kellerman and Sharwood-Smith (1986), recognised that errors can be caused by a variety of factors, and often multiple factors may contribute to an error. While it was maintained that the mother tongue DOES have an effect on L2 acquisition, it was also allowed that it is only one (although often significant) factor among the sources of errors. At the same time, the effect of the mother tongue does not always appear directly, automatically, but in complex interaction with many other factors. This theory will be the topic of Chapter 2.

1.4 Contrastive Analysis in second-language teaching today

Second-language teaching today is dominated by the communicative approach, which does not pay too much attention to L1–L2 contrasts. At the same time, many non-native language teachers believe that linguistic contrasts play an important role in foreign language learning: some claim that without comparing

the mother tongue and L2 learners will not be able to achieve the grammatical awareness they need. According to this position, the translation of Hungarian sentences into a foreign language raises awareness of the differences between the two languages and this is the best measure of a learner's language skills.

In translation education, it is obvious that knowledge of the contrasts between source language and target language is important and useful. In the translator's mental lexicon (ML) there are strong links between the words of the two languages, therefore metalinguistic awareness and efficient self-monitoring, enabling translators to recognize and resist possible interference, are indispensable components of a translator's competence (Heltai 2010).

For trainee teachers it is important to be aware of L1–L2 contrasts, since knowing to what extent the mother tongue impacts the acquisition of various elements of a second or foreign language may help them identify and understand the learners' difficulties that may be due to L1–L2 contrasts.

1.5 Tasks

1. List typical Hungarian mistakes in English pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, phraseology and pragmatics.

2. Search the internet:

a. What does *Hunglish, Spanglish, Germish, Denglis(c)h and Franglais* mean?
b. Give a presentation on typical mistakes made by speakers of any of these languages.
c. Give a presentation of the features of *Singlish*.

3. Find typical Hunglish interference errors in this extract from András Hajós' *Hello, tourist*?[3]

Hello tourist du bist in Budapest,
capitol of Hungary
For a little money I will show you
this beautiful city

I'am a student I'am[4] 23
I study sociology
on the very famous Eötvös Lóránd
science university

Hello tourist on the right side,
Hello tourist on the left side …

[3] https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d7H3VEyIBH8. Last accessed 20.11.2020.
[4] Sic!

Chapter 2
CROSS-LINGUISTIC INFLUENCES

2.1 Developments in linguistics

Structural linguistics, the prevailing paradigm at the time of the rise of CL was focused on sentence structure. It was superseded by transformational generative grammar, proposed by Chomsky in 1957. However, the centrality of syntax remained, and this limited the scope of linguistic theory to linguistic *competence*, sealing it off from the influences of use and context. Transformational generative grammar is characterized by a high degree of abstraction and idealization.

Around 1970, new linguistic disciplines emerged, which began to pay attention to *performance*, the actual use of language in context for communication. Sociolinguistics rejected Chomsky's abstraction of the 'ideal native speaker/hearer'; instead, it directed its attention to varieties of language. Text linguistics and discourse analysis rejected the limitation of linguistics to sentence grammar, and pragmatics has given attention to meaning in use, rather than meaning in the abstract (Leech 1983).

Sociolinguistics, discourse analysis and pragmatics have proved to be more useful for applied linguistics, inclusive of language teaching and translator training. This is shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1. *Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*

Theoretical linguistics	**Applied linguistics**
focused on system ⇒ phonology and syntax; sentence level	focused on use in context ⇒ discourse, pragmatic features and language varieties

2.2 From Contrastive Analysis to Cross-Linguistic Influences (CLI)

Intuitively it is very attractive to attribute errors to interlingual differences. Hungarian learners, e.g., have been observed to add an unnecessary extra element to compounds in English, or use compounds directly translated from Hungarian:

Hungarian	English	Loan translation
íróasztal	*desk*	**writing table*
mentőautó	*ambulance*	**ambulance-car*
kőszén	*coal*	**stone coal*

(Heltai 2012)

It is easy to see that in the area of compounds Hungarian learners are influenced by their mother tongue: Hungarian has a large number of compounds, which often correspond to monomorphemic English words. So Hungarian learners may be assumed to transfer word building patterns into English. Yet, as indicated at the end of the previous chapter, this is not the whole story.

During the years of behaviourism *teaching materials* were considered to be the most important factor in second and foreign language teaching. Subsequent learning theories placed the learner at the centre of the learning process and advocated a multi-factor approach to language learning. In a parallel development there was a shift of focus from the *teaching* of languages to the *acquisition* of languages.

These developments led to the realisation that the difficulties of second language acquisition (SLA) are determined by *several linguistic and non-linguistic factors,* and L1 influence is only one of these factors (Gass 1988, Harley 1995, Swan 1997). The terms *L1 transfer* or *L1 interference*, implying a direct connection between L1 form and L2 production and/or acquisition and emphasizing negative transfer, were replaced by the term *cross-linguistic influences* (Sharwood-Smith 1983, Kellerman and Sharwood-Smith 1986).

Proponents of the idea of CLI maintain that errors are due to several factors, interacting in complex ways with other factors, and cross-linguistic influences constitute only one group of the factors that influence second language learning and learners' communication in L2. Cross-linguistic influences also mean that interference (negative transfer) is not the only form in which L1 influences L2 learning and production. At present, the established thinking is that linguistic contrasts *do not* account for all errors and for all difficulties of learning, but they *do* influence L2 acquisition.

2.3 Factors influencing SLA

There are several linguistic and non-linguistic factors influencing SLA:

Linguistic factors

– universal principles of acquisition;
– inherent difficulty of the structures or lexical items to be acquired;
– cognitive complexity;
– L1/L2 contrasts at different levels.

Universal principles of acquisition concern, e.g., the order in which certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired, or the preference of learners for transparency in word building and compounding (in both L1 and L2; cf. Clark 1993). An example of inherent difficulty is definite and indefinite verb conjugation in Hungarian. As regards cognitive complexity, it is very likely that a complex sentence with a number of embedded subordinate clauses and pre- and postmodifiers is more complex than a simple sentence. Cognitive complexity can be observed in child language acquisition: children will acquire the more complex structures (e.g., the conditional) of their native language later.

Non-linguistic factors
– setting (naturalistic vs. classroom),
– learner variability: age (children/adults), level of proficiency (elementary/advanced), individual differences (e.g. differences in short-term phonological memory),
– order and method of learning and teaching.

Learning an L2 abroad, 'picking it up' as a child, is different from learning it in a school setting as an adolescent or an adult, with explicit instruction provided. The order of learning also counts. For example, if Hungarian learners are told to give full-sentence answers to *yes-no* questions, it will be later more difficult to get them to use short answers with auxiliaries.

It is difficult to identify and separate the effects of all these factors. However, it is unnecessary to attribute a given type of error to a definite source, since in most cases errors are due to several interacting factors. Thus, the difficulties of acquiring the Passive Voice that Hungarian learners of English experience may be due to universal principles of acquisition, cross-linguistic differences and frequency of input.

2.4 Types of L1 influence

The linguistic factors listed above as factors influencing SLA include L1–L2 contrasts at different levels. As a result of contrasts, *cross-linguistic influences* will appear. This term has a broader meaning than transfer. It captures the facts that negative L1 transfer (interference) is not the only way in which L1 can influence the learning of L2 and that L1 influence on L2 learning is indirect rather than direct, since cross-linguistic influences interact in complex ways with all the other factors influencing L2 learning. It has also been found that cross-linguistic influences operate both ways: an L2 may influence the learner's use of their L1 (cf. Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008). There is no denying that interference is an important factor, but the conditions under which it takes place must be considered.

The influence of the learner's L1 on their L2 acquisition may manifest itself in several different ways. These are the following:

(a) positive transfer, associated with facilitation of learning;
(b) negative transfer (interference), involving difficulty of learning;
(c) the use of L1-based strategies;
(d) avoidance: inhibition of transfer and L1-based strategies;
(e) time taken to acquire a pattern or item;
(f) ease/difficulty of recall under pressure.

2.4.1 Positive transfer

Positive transfer may occur where L1 and L2 structures or items are similar. This state of affairs may have a facilitative effect on acquisition: the learner's L1 will actually help the learner to learn the given L2 structure or item and to progress more rapidly along the universal route of SLA.

For example, due to positive transfer, Hungarians will have no difficulty with English word order in noun phrases containing adjectives: in both languages the adjective comes before the noun:

three red apples – három piros alma

Difficulty and interference may occur when Hungarian learners are faced with languages in which the adjective comes after the noun. In this case, negative transfer may result in interference errors:

*három piros alma – *trois rouges pommes*

Positive transfer has received less attention in SLA research than negative transfer, but Ringbom (1992, see Chapter 3) provides conclusive evidence that it plays a major role in language acquisition.

2.4.2 Negative transfer

Negative transfer, or L1 interference, even though its effect is not as direct as it was supposed to be in the halcyon days of contrastive analysis, does, under certain conditions, play a significant role in the genesis of errors, and *may* lead to overt or covert errors, difficulty of acquisition, or slower acquisition. The sources of negative transfer, structural and/or semantic contrasts, may be responsible for learners' uncertainty and increased reliance on L1 patterns under time pressure, and increased amounts of time needed to acquire a pattern or an item, or indeed, the L2 as a whole. Just recall that Hungarian, which is structurally related to Finnish, is much easier for Finns than for English people. In the U.S., the Foreign Service Institute has created a scale, called

language difficulty ranking[5], based on the time an English speaker needs to learn different languages. The 'easiest' languages are those that are related to English (where positive transfer can operate), and the 'most difficult' are those that are genetically, geographically, culturally and typologically the most distant. Thus, the easiest languages (to be learnt in 575–600 hours) are the following:

Afrikaans Danish Dutch French Italian	Norwegian Portuguese Romanian Spanish Swedish

German is somewhat more difficult. It is in the second category. The most difficult languages are in Category 5, requiring 2200 hours to learn:

Arabic Cantonese (Chinese) Mandarin (Chinese)	Japanese Korean

Hungarian, along with Finnish, the Slavic languages and many others, is in Category 4, requiring 1100 hours.

2.4.3 Transferability

A key concept developed by the theory of cross-linguistic influences, particularly in the area of lexical acquisition, is the concept of *transferability*. Classical CA held that linguistic contrasts will inevitably lead to interference. Studies on cross-linguistic influences claim that *transfer* depends, to a large extent, on the *transferability* of the linguistic item or pattern to be acquired.

What is transferability? According to Kellerman (1983), learners *may* be inclined to transfer structural patterns or items from L1 into L2 on the basis of *markedness* and *perceived distance between the two languages*. It is transferability that governs most cross-linguistic processes, manifesting itself in positive or negative transfer, avoidance of certain structures, inhibition of positive transfer or the use of L1-based strategies.

Markedness means that a form, meaning or concept is irregular, unusual or less basic compared to a regular, usual or central form, meaning or concept. A simple example is *he* and *she*: throughout history it was the masculine form that was regarded as unmarked, and the feminine form was marked. (This has

[5] https://effectivelanguagelearning.com/language-guide/language-difficulty/. Last accessed 03.11.2020.

changed now.) In polysemous words the basic or central meaning is unmarked, and transferred meanings are marked: Dutch learners of English will be more inclined to transfer the Dutch verb *breken* into English and use *break* in meanings where they feel it has its core, physical meaning than in transferred, idiomatic meanings that they judge to be native-language-specific (Kellerman 1978). Applying this to Hungarian, we may expect Hungarian learners to be ready to use *break* in the meanings exemplified by *eltöri a széket, eltöri a lábát, eltöri, megtöri a csendet, megtöri a jeget,* but less ready to use *break* in the meaning *utat tör, töri a fejét, töri a németet, eltöri a labdát.*

Hungarian learners beyond the elementary level will tend to see English as relatively distant from Hungarian and German as closer to Hungarian. As a result, they will be more cautious in transferring word building patterns into English than into German.

Transferability can also be studied in collocations, cognate and compound words. Judged by the number of unnecessarily used definite articles by Hungarian learners of English, (the) transferability of the definite article *a/az* seems to be high. It should be noted, though, that transferability is subject to individual variability and stage of learning: some people are much more likely to transfer patterns and items from L1 to L2 than others.

When learners judge the transferability of an element or pattern to be low, the strategy of *avoidance* may occur (see below), particularly with risk-averse personalities.

2.4.3.1 Deceptive transferability

Negative transfer may occur when learners are mistaken in their judgement of transferability, i.e. when a structure or item they judge as unmarked proves to be marked. We may call this deceptive unmarkedness or *deceptive transferability.* In the case of lexis, deceptive transferability seems to be at its highest where an L1 item is unmarked and is in agreement with universal principles of lexical acquisition, such as transparency, simplicity and productivity (Clark 1993). Thus, for instance, transfer based on deceptive transferability is likely in the following cases (Heltai 2012):

- transfer of meanings of polysemous words that are very close to the central meaning;
- transfer of unmarked collocations;
- transfer of cognates;
- transfer of word building patterns, e.g. loan translation of transparent compounds.

2.5 STRATEGY USE

Interference-like errors are not always due to negative L1 transfer, as claimed by classical CA. Learners may deliberately borrow elements from their L1 or form sentences using the patterns of their native language to bridge gaps in their L2 knowledge. In this case they use *strategies* based on their L1 to express something that they do not (yet) know in their L2. E.g., if the learner does not know the word *harangvirág* or *hóvirág*, they may try to translate it literally (and in the case of *harangvirág* they will end up with the right solution: *bell-flower*). There is a fair chance that literal translation will work even if it yields a non-existing English word or phrase, but its meaning can be recovered from the context: given the right circumstances, **snowflower* instead of *snowdrop* might be understood. Learners may also try to translate a Hungarian phrase into English even when they know that it is probably not transferable. They may or may not succeed, but in a given context literal translations like *It is like throwing peas against a (brick) wall*, or *Let's be thankful that we have a hole in our bottoms* might be understood. Corder (1973, 1981) says that learners are actively involved in the process of L2 acquisition, and the first language can serve as one of the inputs in the process of hypothesis generation.

Not all strategies are L1-based. E.g., if the learner uses the phrase **a large yellow fly* to describe a *wasp*, the strategy used is unrelated to his/her L1. In the choice of strategies, however, individual variability is also an important factor. Some learners are more likely to use L1-based strategies than others (see, e.g., Singleton 1999), and under certain conditions most learners may tend to choose L1-based strategies.

Strategies may lead to correct or incorrect L2 forms, but – since they are used consciously to solve a communication problem – they cannot be regarded as interference errors.

2.6. TRANSFER AND STRATEGY

Transfer, in its literal meaning, is the use of L1 elements in L2. According to this narrow definition only phonological and lexical transfer is possible, since grammatical morphemes or constructions are rarely borrowed. In a broader sense, however, transfer includes cases where L1 *patterns of meaning* are transferred into L2 on the basis of *perceived similarity* of certain structures or lexical items. It is this broader sense (allowing grammatical transfer, too) that is more current, as reflected in Odlin's definition:

> *Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired* (1989: 27).

Transfer is usually *unconscious:* the learner is *not aware* of a problem and does not realise that s/he is following L1 patterns. They *believe* that they are using an existing and correct L2 form and are unable to repair even if they have time to reflect. In other cases, transfer occurs even when learners have acquired the rules of L2, but *under pressures of communication*, especially in the case of less thoroughly acquired structures or items, will tend to fall back on L1 patterns. This, again, is unconscious, but in this case the learner may be able to avoid transfer if they have time to reflect, using the monitor. An example of the first case, when learners will unthinkingly use direct and automatic transfer is the case of *false cognates*. At the beginner stage, few Hungarian learners will stop to think before using **alcoholist* (the anglicised form of Hungarian *alkoholista*) when meaning *alcoholic*, or *heavy drinker.* An example of the second case is the use of *he* instead of *she* by advanced Hungarian learners of English under conditions of time pressure: since Hungarian has no gender distinction in third person pronouns, maintaining the distinction in English often requires conscious attention.

Strategies or strategic transfer is different from transfer proper in that the learner is *aware* of a problem: they know that they lack the linguistic means to convey a meaning or find that they are *unable to recall an imperfectly acquired structure or item*. To overcome the problem, the learner *consciously* selects a strategy to convey their meaning. They do not believe that the form they are using corresponds to L2 norms, or at least are not certain (though they may hope that they have found, by sheer luck, such a form, i.e., they enjoy *a free ride*). The strategies used to achieve communication may or may not be based on L1 patterns (Poulisse 1993).

Let us review the various possibilities of transfer and strategy use with the help of Tables 1 and 2. Before doing so, let us look at two terms: The term *overt error* means the use of non-existing grammatical or lexical forms (e.g., **cutted* instead of *cut*, or **alcoholist* for *alcoholic*) or the use of existing grammatical or lexical forms where they are obviously incorrect (*his* instead of *her*, use of the wrong tense, **bring up an example* instead of *give an example*). The term *covert error* refers to a grammatical or lexical form that is correct in itself, but is *inappropriate* to the situation, and has a meaning different from that intended by the speaker. For instance, using *high school* to refer to *főiskola* ('college') is a covert error: it has a meaning inappropriate to the situation.

Erroneous utterances do not always disrupt communication: the listener may understand grammatically or lexically deviant forms (**He thinked …*). Covert errors, however, may mislead the listener.

Table 1. *Transfer and Non-Transfer*

Communication situation The learner wants to communicate something – a preverbal form ⇓							
The learner's interlanguage automatically provides the linguistic form required ⇓							
No L1 influence – **NO TRANSFER**				L1 influence – **TRANSFER**			
well-formed		ill-formed		well-formed		ill-formed	
1.a appropriate	1.b inappropriate	2.a. can be understood	2.b cannot be understood	3.a appropriate	3.b inappropriate	4.a can be understood	4.b cannot be understood
CORRECT the learner has knowledge of this form	ERROR covert error	ERROR non-L1-based, overt error		CORRECT positive transfer	ERROR covert error	ERROR L1-based (interferential), overt error	
I'd like a cup of tea. *Smoking is my pet hate.*[6]	**I want you to come to the cinema with me.*[7] **I have an intermediate level exam in English.*[8]	*It *costed five pounds.* **She no here.*	**You can certainly slept well.*[9] **They ate the home from a bag.*[10]	*cabbage butterfly*	**wallpaper*[11]	**His husband was not at home.*[12]	**He is not very consequent in his actions.*[13]

[6] a minor annoyance that a person identifies as particularly annoying to them, to a greater degree than it may be to others (https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/pet-hate, 2020.09.21)
[7] Meaning: *Would you like to come to the cinema with me?*
[8] *Meaning: I have passed an intermediate exam in English; I hold an intermediate level certificate in English*
[9] Machine translation of the sentence *Bizonyára jól aludt.*
[10] Machine translation of the sentence *Ők az otthonit ették zacsiból.*
[11] Meaning: *notice-board*
[12] Meaning: *Her husband was not at home.*
[13] Meaning: *He is not very consistent in his actions.* (From Problem English, 52)

Table 2. *Strategies*

Communication situation The learner wants to communicate something – a preverbal form ⇓					
The learner's interlanguage **DOES NOT** provide automatically the linguistic form required – the learner decides to use a **strategy** ⇓					
No L1 influence			L1 influence		
5. SUCCESSFUL		6. UNSUCCESSFUL	7. SUCCESSFUL		8. UNSUCCESSFUL
the learner has accidentally hit upon the correct L2 form – a free ride	the meaning can be guessed	the meaning is difficult to guess / cannot be guessed	the learner has accidentally hit upon the correct L2 form – a free ride	the meaning can be guessed	the meaning cannot be guessed
He's a lorry driver.[14]	*The cow's husband*[15]	**There is a small yellow bird there.*[16]	*straw hat*	**five fights*[17]	**mother rye*[18]

[14] Meaning: *truck driver*. Approximation. Accidentally, this is OK, since in British English *trucks* are often referred to as *lorries*.
[15] Meaning: *bull*. Circumlocution
[16] Meaning: *wasp*. Circumlocution.
[17] Meaning: *pentathlon*
[18] Meaning: *ergot*

In Table 1 (page 31), we can see that an utterance, a word or phrase produced by the learner may be correct and appropriate (1.a and 3.a) and correct but inappropriate (1.b and 3.b). Errors may be transfer errors, due to L1 influence (3.b, 4.a and 4.b) or may be due to factors not related to L1 (1.b, 2.a and 2.b). Errors may be overt (formally erroneous, ill-formed) or covert (superficially well-formed, but inappropriate to the situation and the intended meaning).

It should be added that the influence of L1 may also play a role in 1.a: if the learner has acquired a structure or a lexical item and can produce it in the given communication situation, it may have something to do with their L1 if its acquisition has been facilitated by congruence between L1 and L2.

In Table 2 we can see that the strategies used by the learner – just like transfer – may or may not be based on their L1. As in the case of transfer, the result of a strategy may be a correct L2 form. In this case, the learner has accidentally come up with the exact L2 form that was required by the context, i.e., they had a free ride. Strategy use may lead to well-formed or ill-formed utterances, but even in the case of the latter we cannot speak of error – we can only state that the strategy was successful or unsuccessful.

The notions of transfer and strategy are overlapping, and indeed, during the evolution of applied linguistics there has been a lot of re-naming, re-interpretation and confusion of the two concepts. The degree of consciousness is difficult to establish. Hesitation may indicate strategy use, but when the learner unhesitatingly uses a particular L1 pattern, it is very difficult to decide whether we are dealing with automatic transfer, triggered by strong attraction from L1 patterns, or an L1-based strategy. For example, using **straw widow* instead of *grass widow* may be a case of automatic transfer (and may even be committed by a learner who already knows the word *grass widow*), but may be the result of conscious literal translation of the corresponding L1 compound, i.e., a strategy. In this way, the two processes are very difficult to separate. In the case of positive transfer, the learner may automatically transfer a pattern from their L1, e.g., adjective/noun word order. Positive transfer may play a role in the speed of acquisition: if a Hungarian learner is told that the English word for *hattyúdal* is *swan song*, it will not be difficult for them to remember that it corresponds word-for-word to the Hungarian equivalent. On the other hand, contrasts may slow down the process of acquisition. Hungarian nouns are in the singular after a numeral, and leaving the noun in the singular in English after numerals is an error that seems to persist with Hungarian learners. Mixing up *he* and *she* occurs with Hungarian speakers even at the advanced level.

2.7 AVOIDANCE

In addition to transfer and the use of L1-based strategies, the influence of L1 may also be manifested in the avoidance by learners of certain L2 structures or items

perceived to be different from L1 (i.e., transferability is judged to be low, and transfer, judged to be too risky, is inhibited). Avoidance may be conscious (strategic) or unconscious. Hebrew learners, e.g., tend to avoid English phrasal verbs, because in Hebrew there are no phrasal verbs (Dagut and Laufer 1985, Laufer and Eliasson 1993).

Avoidance may happen when the learner knows a certain grammatical structure or lexical item, but has not yet fully acquired it, and being uncertain about its use, decides to use a safe solution – a structure or an item s/he knows well. There might be various other reasons: e.g., the word *mistake* is easier to pronounce for Hungarians than the word *error*, and this may lead to a preference for the former over the latter.

The result of avoidance is differences in distribution, which may be regarded as *covert errors*. Strategies may also be avoided: if the learner finds that L1-based strategies do not work very well, they will tend to avoid L1-based strategies (Váradi 1973/1980, Schachter 1974).

Schachter (1974) studied the use of relative clauses by Arabic, Japanese and Chinese learners. The latter commit two or three times fewer errors than Arab students, but use few relative clauses. The reason is that there are no parallel structures in Japanese and Chinese, so they tend to avoid relative clauses in English.

2.8 Fossilisation

The errors that result from transfer may disappear as the learner learns more of the language. Some errors may be persistent and may occur even at higher levels of proficiency. This is called fossilisation. Fossilisation may be caused by L1–L2 contrasts, lack of motivation to pay attention to formal correctness and various other factors.

2.9 Tasks

1. Transferability of polysemous words

Without consulting a dictionary, state which meanings of the Hungarian words *szem* and *tör* respectively would you translate with the words *eye* and *break* into English?

szemébe néz, szembetegség, szembogár, szemcsepp, szemérem, szemdoktor, szemfesték, szemfog, szemgolyó, szemhéj, szemüveg, jó a szeme, szem elől téveszt, szem előtt tart, szeme se rebben, egy szem barack, láncszem, pávaszem

megtörte a jeget, diót tör, töri a lábát cipő, töri az angolt, rátör vkire, töri a fejét

2. Transferability of polysemous words: translate these sentences.

A.

Practise your English grammar with clear grammar explanations and practice exercises.
These grammar exercises can be done on browser, tablets and smartphones.
I do exercises every morning.
COP26 (Convention on Climate Change) turned out to be just a public relations exercise.
Russian and Belarusian troops will continue their joint exercises near Ukraine.
You need more exercise. Walk a bit more.

B.

Zenét hallgattunk.
Hallgass rám.
Mindketten hallgattunk.
Az asztalon különböző tárgyak voltak.
Ezt a tárgyat jövőre fogom felvenni.
Az első feladat a kutatási tárgy pontos meghatározása.
Tartsuk magunkat a tárgyhoz. Térjünk a tárgyra.
Az út nedves volt. A talaj nedves volt. A levegő nedves volt.

3. Transferability of compounds: Fill in the table below as shown by the examples.

	I know this word, it is ...	If you don't know this word, would you use its literal translation?	Yes	No
fogkrém	tooth paste			
nádcukor		cane-sugar	x	
kapufa		gate-tree		x
anyaország		mother country		
anyarozs		mother rye		
árnyékkormány		shadow government		
árnyékszék		shadow chair		
autóversenyző		car competitor		
babkávé		bean coffee		
cipőkrém		shoe cream		
csavarhúzó		screw puller		
csavarkulcs		screw key		

csónakház		boat house		
dugóhúzó		cork puller		
epekő		kidney stone		
ételmérgezés		food poisoning		
ezüstvasárnap		Silver Sunday		
faliújság		wallpaper		
géppuska		machine rifle		
harangvirág		bellflower		
hengerfej		cylinder head		
hócipő		snow shoes		
hóeke		snow plough		
hólánc		snow chain		
hómunkás		snow worker		
hóvirág		snow flower		
hordágy		carrier bed		
hullaház		corpse house		
húsleves		meat soup		
madárijesztő		bird scarer		
repülőgépanyahajó		airplane mother ship		
selyemhernyó		silk caterpillar		
szalmaözvegy		straw widow		
szélkakas		wind cock		
szemétkosár		rubbish basket		
szentszék		holy chair		
szoknyavadász		skirt hunter		
szomorúfűz		sad willow		
szószék		word chair		
telefonkönyv		telephone book		
tornacipő		gymnastics shoes		
toronyóra		tower clock		
toronyugrás		tower jump		
tükörkép		mirror picture		
tűlevél		needle leaf		
uborkasaláta		cucumber salad		
üvegház		glass house		
véredény		blood dish		
virágvasárnap		Flower Sunday		

4. Read this composition by a Hungarian learner of English, then fill in the table below.

Dogs and English people

Animals have always been in our lives. Dogs have been around us for thousands of years and they have served as hunters and of course our guards. **Britains** can't imagine their lives without any kind of animals. They do not like to live in a house that does not **shelter** a cat. They of course love dogs too, there are some special kinds of English dogs. They are proud to be **an owner** of a nice, intelligent dog. Animals are part of their family, they treat them **as a child**, or as trustworthy partner. It is very **dedicated** that old ladies spend their days, share their lives with small lap dogs or a big cat. **They bring them**, take them for a walk three times a day. The dogs are with them in the cafeteria, too.

British pets are all very very fat, they are all overfed. **The** food for them is expensive, but **Britains** don't **envy** their animals '**the**' money. Dogs are of course very good at guiding people. They have guide dogs for **the blinds**, it is very common in Great Britain to see a blind person with a guide dog.

It is astounding the number of fat pigeons at the Trafalgar Square, they can't even fly because of their **weights.** But everybody loves them and feeds them with corn, rolls. I think I would love them too, probably they are gentle, kind and **don't** afraid of people. In Britain the cleaning of strays is essential. The owners should clean up the streets, the road, parks, playgrounds after their dogs. For this reason, **during walk the dog** their pockets are full **with** a small shovel and plastic or paper bags.

I myself **is** a pet-lover. I have a dog and two cats. I am a bit crazy in this way they sleep in my bed. My father is angry about this and calls me a fool.

	Error due to L1 interference	Error due to something else	Correct form
Britains			
shelter a cat			
an owner			
as a child			
dedicated			
They bring them			
The food			
Britains			
envy			
blinds			
weights			
don't afraid			
during walk the dog			
full with			
I myself is			

Chapter 3

THE SOUND SYSTEMS OF ENGLISH AND HUNGARIAN

3.1 Preview

Discuss the following questions.

- Does /w/ exist in the Hungarian phonological system?
- How do Hungarians who speak English pronounce *Windows, Washington, wellness* in Hungarian discourse?
- How difficult is it for Hungarian learners to acquire the correct pronunciation of this English speech sound?
- Is it difficult only at the beginner stage, or do mistakes recur at later stages?
- Does the speech sound schwa /ə/ occur in Hungarian/English?
- Is it a phoneme in Hungarian/English?
- In what positions does it occur in English?
- How do Hungarians who do not speak English pronounce names/words like *Thatcher, farmer, hamburger*? Why?
- Is it difficult for Hungarians to acquire the correct pronunciation of this English speech sound?
- Is it difficult only at the beginner stage, or do mistakes recur at later stages?

The sound systems of English and Hungarian are radically divergent. The phoneme inventories show great differences, the system of vowels and the system of consonants are organised along different principles, and phonological processes are different. Differences in suprasegmental features – stress, rhythm and intonation – make connected speech very different.

In this chapter we will summarise the most important differences, or contrasts (mostly based on Nádasdy 2006), and note where the contrasts may lead to increased difficulty of acquisition and/or pronunciation errors.

3.2 The vowel system

In English, the vowel system is based on tense/lax alternations and stress. There are full (stressed) vowels and reduced (unstressed) vowels. The syllables before and after a stressed syllable are usually reduced to either /ə/ or /ɪ/, as in *capital, performative, photography, palace, helmet* etc. Length and lip-rounding are not

distinctive features of English vowels: *long and short vowels are qualitatively different.* For this reason, long vowels may become shorter before fortis (voiceless) consonants and sound quite short (yet count as long): due to pre-fortis shortening, the vowel in the word *seek* may not be longer than in *sick*. Yet it will be perceived as long, since the quality of long /iː/ is different from that of short /ɪ/, even if it is reduced in length. The influence of consonants on preceding vowels is also marked in the case of postvocalic and final /r/ and dark /ɫ/.

In general, the quality of English vowels is not very stable: the organs of speech are moving during the articulation of diphthongs, and vowels are sensitive to changes in stress: compare *stable* and *stability*, *refuse* (verb) and *refuse* (noun), *label* and *lapel*, etc.

In Hungarian, the vowel system is based on length and lip-rounding; both features are distinctive. Most importantly, word stress in Hungarian is invariable, and there is no reduction in unstressed syllables: the quality of the vowel /e/ is approximately the same in all the syllables of the word *lehetetlen.* The influence of the consonant following a vowel is less marked in Hungarian: there is no significant vowel shortening.

Some of the English vowels are non-existent in Hungarian: there are no central vowels and (in standard Hungarian) no diphthongs. The Hungarian vowel phoneme /e/ corresponds to two phonemes in English: /e/ and /æ/. (A divergent or split category; see Chapter 1.). The place of articulation, and consequently the quality of most vowels is different: e.g., /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ are half-close and lax in English, while the corresponding Hungarian short vowels /i/ and /u/ are close and tense. As a matter of fact, only long /iː/ and /uː/ are articulated in the same place and have the same quality.

3.3 The consonant system

There are considerable differences between the consonant systems of English and Hungarian and the articulation of several consonants. There are also some phonetic differences.

In English, the consonant system is based on the fortis/lenis opposition, while the voiced/voiceless opposition is a phonetic property. The difference between voiced and voiceless consonants may be neutralised by devoicing. Aspiration is a phonetic property of the voiceless obstruents /p, t, k/. Although phonemically this is not a distinctive feature, the absence of aspiration is perceived as a foreign accent.

In Hungarian, devoicing does not occur. The consonant system is based on the voiced/voiceless opposition. Several English consonants – the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/, /tr/ and /dr/, the labio-velar glide /w/, syllabic consonants and

dark /ɫ/ – are unknown in Hungarian. Velar /ŋ/ has a different phonemic status: in English it is a phoneme, in Hungarian it is an allophone of the phoneme /n/.

Several Hungarian consonants (such as the consonants denoted by the letters *c, gy, ny* and *ty*) do not exist in English. They are matched by phoneme combinations in words like *rats, stats, that's, due, duty, duke, new, nude, nuke, tube, tune, Tudor,* but phonetically these combinations sound different, and they do not constitute phonemes in their own right (cf. Hungarian *dér* and *gyér*, *ín* and *íny*). Most importantly, geminate consonants do not exist in English. In this case we have a convergent phenomenon, which, according to the hierarchies of difficulty developed by CL, is not supposed to cause significant difficulty. In this case, however, it is spelling that complicates the picture: since double consonant letters *are* used in English (pronounced as single consonants), Hungarian learners may pronounce them as geminate consonants. This is *spelling interference,* not phonological, and is relatively easily overcome by learners, except in words of Latin origin that exist both in English and Hungarian, and which Hungarians tend to pronounce with geminate consonants as in their native language: *illegal, irregular, immature*, etc.

3.3.1 Phonetic differences

There are *phonetic differences* in the articulation of some consonants: /d/ in English is alveolar, in Hungarian dental; the affricates /tʃ, dʒ/ are fricatives in Hungarian, while in English combinations of stop + fricative (perceived by Hungarians as geminate). Aspiration in the pronunciation of the voiceless obstruents /p, t, k/, as mentioned above, is a phonetic feature not paralleled in Hungarian.

3.3.2 Distribution

The *distribution* of some consonants also shows differences: English /ʒ/ does not occur in initial position; clear /l/ is in complementary distribution with dark /ɫ/; /r/ in British English occurs only in prevocalic position and is dropped in postvocalic and final position. Permitted consonant sequences are also different: consonant sequences such as *spl-* or *-mplz* (*examples*), or *-ksθs* (*sixths*) do not occur in Hungarian, while final /ŋg/ and /mb/ do not occur in English (*ring, comb*).

3.3.3 Phonological processes

The phonological processes affecting consonants also show considerable differences. Assimilation in Hungarian is regressive (i.e., a following consonant has

an effect on the preceding one), while in English it is normally progressive; cf. *szab – szabtam* vs. *rob – robbed* and *top – topped*. However, regressive assimilation in English may occur across word boundaries: *of course, use your eyes, did you*, etc.

3.4 Letter-to-sound correspondences

The difficulty of acquiring a good English pronunciation is enhanced by the irregularities of English spelling. There are certain rules, or rather tendencies for letter-to-sound correspondences (see Nádasdy 2006, Kovács–Siptár 1991 and Kovács–Siptár 2010), yet English pronunciation depends, to a large extent, on lexical knowledge: you simply have to know how a certain word is pronounced. It is not enough to know how to articulate the vowels /e/ and /æ/: you have to know which one is used in a particular word, e.g., in the word *any.* Stress is very important for pronunciation: if you know where the stress is in a word, you can guess its pronunciation – but stress is not marked in spelling. Vowel alternations (reduction of full vowels) depend on stress.

3.5 Suprasegmental features

Perhaps even more important than the articulation of individual sounds is the difference in the suprasegmental features of English and Hungarian. English stress is difficult to predict and is influenced by suffixes. In many words it is stress that decides whether it is used as a verb or a noun: *import, export, increase, decrease*, etc. (See Kovács–Siptár 1991). There are degrees of stress which influence vowel quality and rhythm. In phrases and sentences there is a tendency towards late stress: Compare:

a fan,tastic ex'perience – 'fantasztikus élmény
I'm not ,well to'day. – Ma 'nem vagyok jól.

A very important component of pronunciation is *rhythm*. Hungarian is *syllable-timed,* i.e. every syllable takes about the same amount of time to produce. English is *stress-timed,* i.e. strong, stressed syllables occur at regular intervals, and there is roughly the same amount of time between strong syllables, while the vowels in *weak syllables are reduced*. Consequently, the more weak syllables there are between two stressed ones, the more rapidly they are spoken. As a result, function words in English have strong and weak forms.

From among the many differences between English and Hungarian *intonation* here we shall mention only one. English *yes-no questions* have a falling intonation, while Hungarian tends to use a rise:

Are you coming tomorrow? – Holnap eljössz?

3.6 The influence of linguistic contrasts on listening comprehension

This section will summarise an article by Ringbom (1992), which shows how positive transfer and the lack of positive transfer may affect the acquisition of *listening comprehension*.

Ringbom defines transfer as *the influence of L1-based elements and L1-based procedures in understanding and producing L2 text.* He points out the fact that studies of transfer usually focus on negative transfer in *production,* and the effects of *positive* transfer and transfer in *comprehension* are neglected.

Positive transfer has been studied in reading comprehension (RC). In languages that are closely related, cognates reduce learning effort and facilitate RC, since lexical and grammatical cognates act as *potential vocabulary and potential grammatical knowledge***.**

In listening comprehension (LC) positive lexical transfer is less easy. Words are less recognisable in speech; dialect and certain aspects of connected speech make it more difficult to recognise words, and there are also pressing time constraints. LC is a more *integrated*, less divisible skill than RC, in which the *unitary* skill factor is more dominant than the composite parts of the skill.

Ringbom found that the English RC scores of Swedish-speaking Finns (i.e., ethnic Swedes living in Finland) were better than those of Finnish-speaking Finns. This is easy to understand, since Swedish and English are related languages: there are many similarities in grammatical structure and there are many cognate words between the two languages.

However, there was an even greater difference in favour of Swedish-speaking Finns in English LC. Apparently, listening tests pose particularly difficult problems for Finns. The difficulty, Ringbom claims, is not due to phonological differences: although such differences are considerable, they are not decisive. For LC, the most important differences are related to the suprasegmental features of Finnish. In Finnish, like in Hungarian, word stress is invariable (always on the first syllable); there is vowel harmony, while word-initial and word-final consonant clusters are absent. As a result, word boundaries are exceptionally clear in Finnish. Recognising word boundaries automatically and effortlessly is *procedural knowledge,*[19] enabling speakers/hearers to understand connected speech.

[19] *Procedural knowledge* is automatised, unconscious knowledge that enables people to do something: to walk, to ride a bicycle, to drive a car, etc. Speaking one's native language depends on procedural knowledge: we produce grammatically and semantically correct sentences without thinking of the rules of Hungarian grammar. Procedural knowledge is *knowledge how to* do something, and is acquired gradually, through practice. As against this, *declarative knowledge* is explicit, conscious, that can be acquired by learning (*knowledge that*). Learning the rules of Hungarian grammar at school will equip us with declarative knowledge – we can recite it in an examination, but we can speak Hungarian according to the grammatical rules of Hungarian even if we are not aware of a single rule, from age 2+ on.

However, this procedural knowledge cannot be transferred into English, where the same clues cannot be used to recognize word boundaries. In addition, time pressure also has a pronounced negative effect on Finnish learners.

Ringbom concludes that learners of a related language meet with fewer comprehension problems in an oral situation that demands considerable automatisation of subskills, because their L1-based procedural knowledge is much more useful than it is for speakers of an unrelated language. Speakers of Finnish cannot take advantage of positive transfer of procedural skills due to the completely different suprasegmental features of their L1.

3.7 Tasks

1. Discuss, based on Ringbom's research, which features of English make it difficult for Hungarian learners to use positive transfer in understanding spoken English.

2. Identify the kind of difference between the following English phonemes, allophones or suprasegmental features and their Hungarian counterparts. Discuss the possible difficulty that they may cause to learners at the beginning stage. How difficult is it (in your experience) for Hungarian learners to acquire these phonemes and features of English (easy, medium, difficult, exceedingly difficult)? In describing the differences, use categories 1–7 in the Table below.

Table 3. *Type of difference*

1. No difference: H sz[20] – E /s/
2. Convergent phenomena: H b and bb – E /b/
3. Item absent in L2: Hungarian ö and ü
4. Different distribution H /ŋ/ – E /ŋ/
5. Item absent in L1: E /w/
6. Divergent phenomena: H e – E /e/ and /æ/
7. Criss-cross correspondences, some difference in articulation or phonetic features: H r – E /r/

Contrast	Type of difference (1-7)	Perceived/experienced degree of difficulty
H short i and u – E /ɪ/ & /ʊ/		
H long í and ú – E /i:/ and /u:/		
H ?[21] – E central vowel /ə/		

[20] For simplicity, phonetic transcription is used only for the E sounds; the corresponding Hungarian sounds are represented by the letters that usually denote them.

[21] The question mark indicates that this sound does not occur in carefully articulated speech and does not have phonemic status in Hungarian.

H ?[22] – E diphthongs		
H zs – E /ʒ/		
H e – E /e/ and /æ/		
H r – E /r/		
H l – E clear /l/ and dark /ɫ/		
H p, t, k – E /p/, /t/ and /k/		
H l, m, n – E syllabic /l/, /m/, /n/		
H Ø[23] – E dental fricatives /θ/, /ð/		
H Ø[24] – E labio-velar /w/		
H /ŋ/ – E /ŋ/		
H geminate consonants – E simple consonants		
unstressed vowels in H – unstressed vowels in E		
unstressed function words in H – unstressed function words in E		

3. Mark secondary and primary stresses in Hilaire Belloc's *The Chief Defect of Henry King*[25] and in John Betjeman's *A Shropshire Lad*[26]. Observe the rhythm of these poems on Youtube and the pronunciation of the underlined words:

The chief defect of Henry King Was chewing little bits of string. At last, he swallowed some which tied Itself in ugly knots inside. Physicians of the utmost fame Were called at once, but when they came They answered as they took their fees, "There is no cure for this disease".	Henry will very soon be dead, His parents stood about his bed Lamenting his untimely death, When Henry, with his latest breath Cried, "All my friends be warned by me, That breakfast, dinner, lunch and tea Are all the human frame requires". With that, the wretched child expires. (Hilaire Belloc)

[22] The question mark indicates that diphthongs occur in some Hungarian dialects, but not in the standard variety.
[23] Ø – No corresponding Hungarian phoneme.
[24] Ø – No corresponding Hungarian phoneme.
[25] https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=v6sGWLS9KpU Last accessed 25.02.2022. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DnQM3xbi928 Last accessed 25.02.2022.
[26] https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=72O4jZxIxM8 Last accessed 25.02.2022. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CoO_aqY45-A Last accessed 25.02.2022.

A SHROPSHIRE LAD

The gas was on in the Institute,
The flare was up in the gym,
A man was running a mineral line,
A lass was singing a hymn,
When Captain Webb the Dawley man,
Captain Webb from Dawley,
Came swimming along the old canal
That carried the bricks to Lawley,
Swimming along, swimming along,
Swimming along from Severn,
And paying a call at Dawley Bank
While swimming along to Heaven.

The sun shone low on the railway line
And over the bricks and stacks,
And in at the upstairs windows
Of the Dawley houses' backs,
When we saw the ghost of Captain Webb,
Webb in a water sheeting,
Come dripping along in a bathing dress
To the Saturday evening meeting.

Dripping along, dripping along,
To the Congregational Hall;
Dripping and still he rose over the sill
And faded away in a wall.

There wasn't a man in Oakengates
That hadn't got hold of the tale,
And over the valley in Ironbridge,
And round by Coalbrookdale,
How Captain Webb the Dawley man,
Captain Webb from Dawley,
Rose rigid and dead from the old canal
That carried the bricks to Lawley,

Rigid and dead, rigid and dead,
To the Saturday congregation,
And paying a call at Dawley Bank
On his way to his destination.

(Composed by The Late Poet Laureate
Sir John Betjeman)

4. Observe sentence rhythm and the pronunciation of weak forms in these corny jokes. Identify the reduced vowels.

– *My wife's gone to the West Indies.* – *Jamaica?*[27] – *No, she went of her own accord.* (Wodehouse: Uncle Dynamite)	– *(A feleségem) Indonéziába utazott.* – *Dzsakarta?* – *Nem is én kényszerítettem.* (Wodehouse: Dinamit bácsi. Fordította: Révbíró T.)
And these, ladies, are the famous Falls. *If you can stop talking for a moment, you'll be able to hear their mighty roar.* J. W. Lewis (1977)	

27 /dʒəˈmeɪkə/. In rapid speech it sounds almost the same as *Did you make her*?

5. The Top Ten

Good English pronunciation does not depend on correct articulation alone: as described above, it also depends on lexical knowledge. One simply has to know how to pronounce certain words. Many Hungarian learners and speakers of English mispronounce the following words ('The Top Ten'). The reasons are manifold, including a general contrast between English and Hungarian spelling (in Hungarian, letter to sound correspondences are more stable than in English), the role of variable stress in English, false analogy, the influence of the Hungarian pronunciation of international words, etc.

CHECK if you pronounce these words correctly, and **DISCUSS** the possible reasons behind the common pronunciation mistakes committed by many Hungarian learners of English.

The Top Ten or so Mispronounced Words

analyse /ˈænəlaɪz/
analysis /əˈnælɪsɪs/
adjective [ˈædʒɪktɪv]
adjectival [ˌædʒɪkˈtaɪvəl]
vowel /vaʊəl, vaːəl/
determine /dɪ'tɜːmɪn/
determination /dɪˌtɜːmɪ'neɪʃn/
examine /ɪgˈzæmɪn/
examination /ɪgˌzæmɪˈneɪʃn/
recognize /ˈrekəgnaɪz/
represent /ˌreprɪˈzent/
vary /ˈveərɪ/
variable /ˈveərɪəbl/
variability /ˌveərɪəˈbɪlətɪ/
variety /vəˈraɪətɪ/
various /ˈveərɪəs/
comfortable /kʌmf(ə)təbɫ/
vegetable /vedʒtəbɫ/
because /bɪˈkɒz/

6. The pronunciation of long words

The pronunciation of long words, especially those of Latin origin, may also cause problems. Many of them are international words occurring in Hungarian, too, and the Hungarian pronunciation of the word taken together with uncertainty about stress placement in their English counterparts may easily mislead the learner. Here is a list to check and practise.

Abraham
academic
academy
apricot
archaic
Austria
bosom
broad
brothel
certificate
chaos
Chinese
criterion
diameter
economy
economic
employee
environment
evolution
gymnasium
heroic
hygiene hygienic
iambic
inherent
irony
Japanese
juice
knowledge
law
manageress
marine
mariner
mature
metropolitan
neon
neurosis
neurotic
northern
notify
novel
obligatory
Parisian
peripheral
philosophy
poem
poetic
sadist
sadistic
sado-masochistic
sarcasm
senate
sincerity
sociology
soldier
southern
strategic
wilderness

Prospective teachers of English are also supposed to know the pronunciation of the terms used in phonetics and phonology. Check whether you can correctly pronounce the following terms.

acoustic	/əˈku:stɪk/
affricate	/ˈæfrɪkət/
allophone	/ˈæləfəʊn/
allophonic	/ˌælə’fɒnɪk/
alveolar	/æl’vɪələ(r)/ or /ˌælvɪəʊlə(r)/
articulation	/ɑ:ˌtɪkjʊˈleɪʃn/
articulatory	/ɑ:ˈtɪkjʊlət(ə)rɪ/
auditory	/ɔ:dɪt(ə)rɪ/
aural	/ɔ:rəl/
bilabial	/baɪˈleɪbɪəl/
cavity	/ˈkævətɪ/
complementary	/ˌkɒmplɪ’mentərɪ/ or /ˌkɒmplə’mentərɪ/
consonant	/ˈkɒnsənənt/
dental	/ˈdent(ə)l/
diphthong	/ˈdɪfθɒŋ/
distinctive	/dɪsˈtɪŋktɪv/
distribution	/ˌdɪstrɪˈbju:ʃ(ə)n/
disyllabic	/ˌdaɪsɪˈlæbɪk/
fortis	/ˈfɔ:təs/ or /ˈfɔ:tɪs/
fricative	/ˈfrɪkətɪv/
glottal	/ˈglɒt(ə)l/
glottis	/ˈglɒtəs/ or /ˈglɒtɪs/
intervocalic	/ˌɪntəvəʊ’kælɪk/

labio-dental	/ˌleɪbɪəʊˈdent(ə)l/
lateral	/ˈlætərəl/
lenis	/ˈli:nəs/ or /ˈli:nɪs/
monophthong	/ˈmɒnəfθɒŋ/
monosyllabic	/ˌmɒnəsɪlˈlæbɪk/
nasal	/ˈneɪz(ə)l/
oral	/ˈɔ:rəl/
palatal	/ˈpælət(ə)l/
palate	/ˈpælət/
palato-alveolar	/ˌpælətəʊæl'vɪələ(r)/
phoneme	/ˈfəʊni:m/
phonemic	/fəʊˈni: mɪk/
phonetics	/fəˈnetɪks/
phonology	/fəˈnɒlədʒɪ/
physiological	/ˌfɪzɪə'lɒdʒɪkəl/
plosive	/ˈpləʊsɪv/
post-alveolar	/ˌpəʊstæl'vɪələ(r)/
prominence	/ˈprɒmɪnəns/
prosodic	/prə'sɒdɪk/
prosody	/ˈprɒsədɪ/
retroflex	/ˈretrəʊfleks/
segment	/'segmənt/ n.; /segˈment/ v.
segmental	/segˈment(ə)l/
segmentation	/ˌsegmən'teɪʃ(ə)n/
sibilant	/ˈsɪbɪlənt/
sonorant	/ˈsɒnərənt/
sonority	/sə'nɒrətɪ/
sonorous	/ˈsɒnərəs/
subphonemic	/ˌsʌbfəʊ'ni:mɪk/
suprasegmental	/ˌsu:prəseg'ment(ə)l/
syllabic	/sɪˈlæbɪk/
syllable	/ˈsɪləbl/
triphthong	/ˈtrɪfθɒŋ/
trisyllabic	/ˌtraɪsɪˈlæbɪk/
uvula	/ˈju:vjʊlə/
variant	/ˈveərɪənt/
variation	/ˌveərɪˈeɪʃ(ə)n/
velar	/ˈvi:lə(r)/
vocal	/ˈvəʊkəl/
vocalization	/ˌvəʊkəkaɪˈzeɪʃ(ə)n/
vowel	/ˈvaʊəl/

Chapter 4
HUNGARIAN–ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL CONTRASTS: THE VERB PHRASE

Chapters 4 top 6 are concerned with grammatical contrasts between Hungarian and English. Since prospective users of this book are supposed to be familiar with the most important grammatical contrasts between the two languages, these chapters focus on those contrasts that are likely to cause frequent errors or learning difficulty and those that may have been missed in the course of the students' previous studies, but may play a role in written language use or translation. The mode of presentation is example-based, and lots of exercises are offered. Since the area where contrasts appear to influence learners most is L1–L2 (Hungarian–English) translation, translation exercises are dominant in this section.

Chapter 4 is concerned with the verb and the verb phrase. Verbs in English and Hungarian differ in many respects: morphology (verbal inflections, prefixes and suffixes), obligatory complements, tense and aspect, use of auxiliaries, stative and dynamic verbs, verbs vs. adjectives etc. Some of these contrasts will be dealt with (recapitulated) in this chapter.

4.1 Contrasts in verbs and verb phrases – preview

Translate.
A Pentagon több dokumentuma – köztük néhány titkos – egy texasi börtönben **bukkant fel**. *Annak a 10 íróasztalnak a fiókjaiból* **kerültek elő** *az iratok, amelyeket az El Paso-i fegyházba szállítottak javításra. Ez nem az első ilyen eset az Egyesült Államokban, két éve például a külügyminisztérium aktáit* **találták meg** *Washington közelében, egy börtönben.*

Discuss: What's wrong with these sentences?
**I told my name.*
**Why didn't you greet?*
**I want to tell a few words about this.*

4.2 Obligatory complements of the verb

The central element in each sentence is the Verb (V). Different verbs have different numbers of obligatory complements, and the number of obligatory complements required by an L1 verb may be different from that required by its L2 correspondent.

Consider the sentences:

**I told my name.*
**Why didn't you greet?*
**I want to tell a few words about this.*

In Hungarian it is perfectly all right to say *Megmondtam a nevemet, Miért nem köszöntél, Szeretnék néhány szót mondani erről.* In Hungarian the verb *mondani* and *köszönni* can be used without an indirect object ('részeshatározó'), while the indirect object is always obligatory with *tell* and *greet* in English. This contrast then *may* lead to interference errors. In the case of *tell* we have the following picture:

Hungarian	**English**
mondani (el~, meg~)	*say* *tell*

With the Hungarian verb(s) the indirect object is optional, while in English it is optional with *say* but obligatory with *tell.* Basically, what we have here is a divergent phenomenon: one Hungarian word corresponds to two English words depending on the presence or absence of an indirect object. In this case, experience supports the claim of classical CA that such differences (divergent phenomena) cause considerable difficulty to learners.

Accordingly, in translating the following sentences obligatory complements must be added:

Adj tüzet. Mondd, hogy szeretsz. Nem szoktam könyvet kölcsönadni. Megkérdeztem, de nem válaszolt.

Sometimes it is an English verb that can be used without an object, while in Hungarian it is obligatory:

The committee adjourned without reaching a decision. (… elnapolta az ülést)
It is important to be polite if we want to avoid giving offence. (… valakit megsértsünk)

A lot of difficulty is due to the fact that Hungarian verbs are often complemented by adverbials, while the corresponding English verbs take a direct or indirect object:

Kérhetek tőled egy szívességet?	*Can I ask you a favour?*
Játszhatok veled egy sakkpartit?	*Can I play you a game of chess?*

4.2.1 Semantic roles

The semantic roles of verb complements are constant, while their grammatical functions are variable. Consider the following sentences (cf. Fillmore 1970):

1) *John broke the window with a hammer.*
2) *The window was broken by John with a hammer.*
3) *The window was broken by John.*
4) *The window was broken with a hammer.*
5) *The window was broken.*
6) *John used a hammer to break the window.*
7) *The window broke.*
8) *The hammer broke the window.*

John has the grammatical function of subject in 1) and 6); it is an adverbial in 2) and 3), but its semantic role is *agent*, the doer of the action, in all these sentences. Grammatically, the *window* is direct object in 1) and 6), subject in 2) to 5) and 7). Semantically, it is *affected* (Quirk et al. 1985) by the action (an alternative term for *affected* is *theme*). The word *hammer* is semantically an *instrument* in all the sentences where it occurs, while grammatically it is adverbial in 1), 2) and 4, direct object in 6), and subject in 8). In some sentences not all the complements have to be expressed.

There are differences between the preferences of English and Hungarian for expressing certain semantic roles through certain grammatical functions. Most salient among these is the preference of English to express the role of *affected* through the function of subject in passive sentences. Another major contrast is related to the semantic role of *external causer*, particularly in written styles. Consider these sentences:

The crash killed four people.
The snowfall brought traffic to a standstill.
The end of the 19th century saw Britain falling behind Germany in its industrial production.

If you translate these sentences into Hungarian, you will find that the subject of the English sentence is best expressed as an adverbial, while the verb changes from transitive to intransitive:

A balesetben négyen haltak meg.
A hóesés miatt megbénult a közlekedés.
A 19. század végén Anglia ipari termelése kezdett elmaradni Németországától.

4.2.2 Contrasts in the use of intransitive and transitive verbs

As described above, Hungarian often uses intransitive verbs where English has a preference for external causer subjects and transitive verbs. In addition, Hungarian intransitive verbs often correspond to English transitive verbs in the passive:

Új utak épültek. – *New roads have been built.*
Sokan meghaltak a balesetben. – *Many people were killed in the crash.*

Sometimes English offers an active and a passive option:

Az ajtó kinyílt. – *The door opened. The door was opened.*

In some cases, we may choose between a transitive and an intransitive verb in English, with a clear preference for the former:

Az előadásból kiderült, hogy Ádám apánk is magyarul beszélt.
From the lecture we learned that even our father Adam spoke Hungarian.
A konferencián a magyar nyelv eredetéről lesz szó.
The conference will discuss the origin of the Hungarian language.

4.3 The Passive

As there is practically no Passive Voice in Hungarian, Hungarian learners of English have to learn a new grammatical category. The contrast works out as a divergent phenomenon: learners have to choose between the Active and the Passive where the only choice in their L1 is the Active:

Ezt a képet Dürer festette. – *Dürer painted this picture.*
– *This picture was painted by Dürer.*
Megitták az összes bort. – *They drank all the wine.*
– *All the wine was drunk.*

The next step is to learn the uses of the Passive. At school learners are often told that the Passive is used in English when the agent is not known or is unimportant. However, this is only true of the *short passive,* where the agent is not specified. It is different with the long passive, where the agent is expressed by a prepositional phrase. The long passive is often used to lend special emphasis to the agent by giving it *end focus:*

St Paul's Cathedral, dating from the late 17th century, was designed in the English Baroque style by Sir Christopher Wren.

In this case the agent is very important, since it comes last in the sentence, and in English we have end-focus (i.e., the end of the sentence receives sentence stress, and it contains the most important new information). Consider these sentences too:

A bort megitták. – The wine has been drunk. (The agent is unkown or unimportant.)
A diákok megitták a bort. – The students drank/have drunk the wine. (Stress falls on the word wine; this is the most important piece of new information.)
A diákok itták meg a bort. – The wine was/has been drunk by the students. (Special emphasis is laid on the noun phrase *the students*.)

In this way, the choice between the Active and the Passive depends on what is new information in the sentence. However, it also depends on register: in oral communication the Active, while in written registers the Passive is preferred.

The most common Hungarian correspondent of the long passive is an active sentence, in which the agent (realised by a prepositional phrase in English) is moved to subject position. The short passive also corresponds to the Active, with a 3rd person plural verb expressing an indefinite subject. However, there are some other Hungarian constructions that regularly correspond to the English Passive:

The house was painted white.	*– 1. A házat fehérre festették.*
	– 2. A ház fehérre volt festve.
This picture was painted by Dürer.	*– Ezt a képet Dürer festette.*
The window was shut.	*– Az ablak becsukódott.*
The rules must be adhered to.	*– A szabályokhoz ragaszkodnunk kell.*
My hat has been sat on.	*– Valaki ült a kalapomon.*
He was denied entry.	*– Megtagadták tőle a belépést.*

4.4 Delexical verbs

Intransitive verbs in English are often replaced by phrases containing a verb with a rather general meaning (**delexical verbs**: *have, make, do, give*, etc.) and a noun derived from the original verb:

Délután sétáltunk.	*– In the afternoon we took a walk.*
Megreggeliztünk.	*– We had breakfast.*
Hazudtál.	*– You have told me a lie.*

This tendency is strong in the Simple Present and Past Tenses and in written language on specialist topics.

Felkiáltott.	*– She exclaimed. / She gave an exclamation.*
Elemeztük az adatokat.	*– We made an analysis of the data.*

The use of this construction, referred to as *structural compensation* in Greenbaum and Quirk (1990) is related to the issue of information flow. In English sentences there is usually a gradual progression from low to high communicative dynamism (i.e., information value):

Jane	*walked*	***leisurely.***
low	medium	high information value

In this sentence *Jane* is given information (see Chapter 9), so its communicative value is low. The communicative value of the verb *walked* is higher, and that of *leisurely* is the highest. Both *walked* and *leisurely* express new information, but the latter is the most important piece of new information.

This gradual increase in informativeness is broken in the case of intransitive verbs that stand alone at the end of the sentence and are felt to be somehow incomplete: *Jane walked.* Structural compensation restores the usual pattern:

Jane	*took*	***a walk.***
low	medium	high information value

The tendency to use verb+noun constructions instead of simple verbs occurs in Hungarian, too, but on a smaller scale, particularly in spoken language, and some phrases of this type are regarded as unacceptable ('terpeszkedő szerkezetek').

Measurements of the consumption were made daily.
Daily measurements were made of the consumption.
A fogyasztást naponta mértük. Naponta végeztünk méréseket a fogyasztásról. (?)
A fogyasztás naponta mérésre került. (?)

4.5 Stative verbs and predicative adjectives

Consider the following sentences:

Mit csinálsz?	*– Unatkozom.*
What are you doing?	*– *I'm bored.*
Mit csinál János?	*– What is John doing?*
Csak hallgat.	*– *He's only silent.*

Why can't we translate these sentences literally? Obviously because *bored* and *silent* are adjectives, and they cannot be referred to by the verb *do*.

In Hungarian there is no problem: both *unatkozni* and *hallgatni* are verbs, so they can answer a question with *mit csinál(sz)*. Although they do not express actions, grammatically they are verbs.

There are verbs both in English and Hungarian that do not express actions or events but states or relations. Thus, we can divide verbs into two broad categories: dynamic verbs (e.g., *jump, dance, eat*) and stative verbs (e.g., *sleep, resemble, consist of*).

States can also be expressed by adjectives. In English there is a large number of so-called predicative adjectives that are only used as part of the predicate. Thus, we can say *She is asleep*, but we cannot say **The asleep beauty*. Predicative adjectives are sometimes paralleled by stative verbs:

She was sleeping.
She was asleep.

In Hungarian the use of verbs to express states is more common. Table 4 shows some English predicative adjectives and stative verbs and their Hungarian correspondents.

Table 4. *Some English predicative adjectives and their Hungarian correspondents*

English		**Hungarian**	
ADJECTIVE	**VERB**	**ADJECTIVE**	**VERB**
ablaze	blaze	lángban áll	lángol
absent	-	-	hiányzik
afloat	float	-	lebeg
afraid	fear	-	fél
alert	–	éber	vigyáz
alive	live	-	él
anxious	–	-	(szeretne)
ashamed	–	-	szégyenkezik
asleep	sleep	-	alszik
averse	dislike	-	idegenkedik
aware	know	tudatában van	tud
careful	(take care)	óvatos	vigyáz
content	–	elégedett	megelégszik
crazy	–	–	bolondul
dead	die	halott	meghal
delighted	delight	-	örül
eager	–	-	szeretne
fond	like	-	kedvel
frightened	fear	–	fél
glad	rejoice	-	örül
keen	–	-	szeretne
late	–	-	késik
loath	hate	-	utál
pleased	–	-	örül
reluctant	–	–	vonakodik
right	–	igaza van	-
scared	fear	–	fél
silent	–		hallgat
sore	(hurt)	-	fáj
sorry	–	-	sajnál
subject to	–	köteles	(alá) esik
unfaithful	betray	hűtlen	megcsal
worth	–	(értekű)	ér
wrong	(be mistaken)	nincs igaza	téved

Table 4 clearly shows that when it comes to expressing states, English has a preference for grammatical forms suggesting states (adjectives and participles), while Hungarian has a preference for grammatical forms suggesting events (verbs).

The same difference can be seen in the following example:

He was shocked to see the damage. – Megdöbbent, amikor a kárt látta.

The Passive in the English sentence expresses a state that came into being as a result of a previous event, while Hungarian tends to emphasise the event rather than the resulting state. English passive verbs are often ambiguous between event (or action) and resulting state, while Hungarian takes a firm stand by using a verb in the active:

She is completely controlled by her pimp. – A strici teljes mértékben uralkodik rajta.

The contrast between the preference of English for predicative adjectives and the preference of Hungarian for verbs can also be seen in the case of temporary states involving some activity or characteristic behaviour.

Most kedveskedik.	*– Now he's being kind.*
János már megint kellemetlenkedett.	*– John was being unpleasant again.*

Repeated characteristic actions and/or behaviour (states in the wider sense) are often expressed in English through predicative adjectives, corresponding to verbs in Hungarian:

She is too protective of her son.	*– Túlságosan is óvja a fiát.*

This mode of expression is typical of the scientific domain and written styles:

This is reflective of his character.	*– Ez tükrözi a jellemét.*

There is a large number of such learned adjectives, most of them followed by the preposition *of*:

apparent, appreciative, assertive, averse, aware, careful, confident, conducive, conscious, dependent, expressive, facilitative, hesitant, imitative, indicative, oblivious, rampant, reluctant, representative, resident, resistant, responsive, suggestive, unaware

4.5.1 Change of state

Both English and Hungarian have verbs expressing a change of state, e.g., *Elszomorodott az arca – Her face saddened.* Here again English has a preference for a more stative expression, consisting of a general change of a state verb and an adjective or a participle. Consider the following examples.

Elfáradt.	*– He got tired.*
Meggyógyult.	*– He got well.*
Elpirult.	*– She blushed. / Her face turned red.*
A nappalok hosszabbodnak.	*– The days are lengthening/getting longer.*
Megkönnyebbült.	*– He was relieved.*

4.5.2 Nominal vs. verbal expressions

English subject complements (nominal, adjectival and prepositional phrases) often correspond to verbs in Hungarian:

Crime is on the rise.	*– A bűnözés növekszik/növekvőben van.*
She's on the prowl.	*– Zsákmányra les.*
The problem is under study.	*– A problémát vizsgálják/juk.*
This plant is a good doer.	*– Ez a növény nagyon jól terem. (It does well on this soil.)*
She is a looker.	*– Nagyon jól néz ki. (She looks great.)*
She is crackers about him.	*– Bolondul érte.*

The literal translation of some similar phrases has become established in Hungarian, too:

This idea is not a winner.	*– Ez az ötlet nem nyerő.*
He is a loser.	*– (Ő) lúzer.*

From a theoretical perspective, the question arises: Does part-of-speech make a difference? It appears to be so. States expressed by verbs tend to be perceived as more dynamic than states expressed by adjectives. Part-of-speech *is* part of the meaning of words (Bolinger 1980: 27), so a shift in form class represents a shift in focus. In this way, we might say that Hungarian tends to adopt a somewhat more dynamic view of the world than English.

Bolinger (1980:79) claims that nouns are more 'biased' than verbs. Transitory events are made to appear as permanent features, parts of the world around us. Kress and Hodge (1979) note that

> *Language fixes a world that is so much more stable and coherent than what we actually see that it takes its place in our consciousness and becomes what we think we have seen. And since normal perception works by constant feedback, the gap between the real world and the socially constructed world is constantly being reduced, so that what we do 'see' tends to become what we can say* (Kress and Hodge 1979: 5).

Shifting emphasis from dynamic actions and processes to resulting states occurs in both languages, especially in certain registers and styles and especially in the written mode. Apparently, the difference between English and Hungarian lies in the fact that this phenomenon is more common in English, probably due to the greater propensity of English for the reification of events and processes (noted by Whorf 1956) and the greater impact made on English by the language of science.

Most of the errors attributable to interlingual differences in expressing states and events will be covert errors or stylistic errors, which should not bother the beginner or intermediate level learner unduly. However, advanced learners might benefit from studying such interlingual differences. A stylistically adequate piece of writing in English must be more 'stative' than a corresponding Hungarian one (Heltai 1994).

4.6 Correspondents of Hungarian prefixes in English

Study the following correspondences:

bejön	*come in*
beteljesedik	*come true*
beterjeszt (indítványt)	*submit (a proposal)*
betör (házba)	*break in(to) a house)*
betör (ajtót)	*break in/down (the door)*
betör (lovat)	*break in (a horse)*
begyullad	*get scared*
bevállal	*undertake, take up, agree to do*
bealszik	*oversleep*
besokall	*get fed up with*

What is the meaning of the Hungarian verbal prefix *be-*, and what is the English correspondent of this prefix?

Apparently, *be-* has quite a good number of different meanings, corresponding to various verbal constructions in English. In general, it can be said that Hungarian, as an agglutinative language, has a rich array of verbal affixes that

change the meaning of the base verb in various ways: they add spatial and aspectual meanings as well as all kinds of transferred, metaphorical meanings.

English uses few prefixes and suffixes. The meanings of a Hungarian prefixed verb can be expressed in English by

- phrasal verbs;
- compound verbs;
- verb tense and aspect;
- simple verb (without formal change), and
- a different verb.

In this way, it is difficult to compare the two systems – there are criss-cross correspondences. We have no space here to present a systematic comparison of the relevant subsystems of the two languages – one reason being that there does not exist such a comparison. Instead, a few examples will be given of some difficulties, based on teaching experience.

The Hungarian verbal prefix *meg-* often carries the aspectual meaning of perfective (although verbs in Hungarian may have the same meaning without the prefix) and may be matched in English by Present Perfect verbs:

Ettem egy szendvicset./Megettem egy szendvicset. – I ate/have eaten a sandwich.

In some cases, Hungarian learners try to find a morphological equivalent of the Hungarian verbal prefix when a simple verb would do. The easiest solution appears to be to identify Hungarian prefixed verbs with English phrasal verbs:

Edd meg! – *Eat it up!*
Tudd meg, mikor indul a vonat! – *Find it out when the train leaves!*

However, this crosslinguistic identification does not always work. In many cases the base form of the English verb is sufficient, or, if the Hungarian verb has a transferred, metaphorical meaning, a different verb or a paraphrase is needed:

A szellem megszólalt. – *The gost spoke.*
A telefon/csengő megszólalt. – *The telephone/bell rang/began to ring.*
Vajon megalkuszik irányadó mértékeiben, ha elfogadja ezt a szokást?
– Would he be lowering his standards if he went along with this custom?[28]

In choosing a correspondent for a prefixed Hungarian verb, transferability plays an important role, and deceptive transferability may lead to error.

[28] https://hu.glosbe.com/hu/en/megalkuszik. Accessed 05.12.2020.

4.7 Tasks

1. Compare these sentences and discuss the semantic role of the nouns in the underlined phrases.

I. e. 2000 körül a népességnövekedés nyomására a finnugor ősnép nyugati finn ága kirajzott a Volga, majd a Balti-tenger felé.	*Around 2000 B.C. population growth forced the western Finnish branch of the ancient Finno-Ugric people to move to the Volga and later to the Baltic Sea.*
Ebben az együttes munkában alakultak erdők és puszták évtizedek során embernek való kultúrtájjá.	*... the collective efforts of the peoples living in this area transformed its forests and the steppes into a land fit for human habitation.*
A száraz hideget kedvelő állatfajok az éghajlat fokozatos melegedésével és nedvesedésével északra húzódtak.	*However, the gradual increase in temperature and the development of greater humidity forced these animal species who liked dry cold weather to move northwards.*

2. Discuss the semantic role of the nouns in the underlined phrases. Translate these sentences into Hungarian.

Chicago. – The United States' biggest winter storm so far shut down schools and roads and left hundreds without electricity as it swept the Midwest. Up to 9 inches of snow in northern Ohio shut down scores of roads and highways. Blowing snow brought traffic to a standstill in parts of north-west Ohio. A windstorm in North Carolina knocked out power for several hours.[29]

3. Translate into English, changing the subject.

A hóesés következtében megbénult a közlekedés.

A 19. század végén Anglia ipari termelése kezdett elmaradni Németországétól.

A 19. sz. első felében Magyarországon jelentős gazdasági és politikai fejlődés ment végbe.

A hét végén hurrikán sújtotta (hit) *Kubát. A hurrikán következtében szinte lehetetlenné vált a cukornád gépi aratása* (harvesting by machine). *A szélvihar következtében csaknem teljesen megsemmisült* (devastate/destroy) *a termés* (crop) *mintegy 2000 hektár területen.*

[29] Daily News, 19.11.1986.

4. Translate into English, using the short passive.

Az ajtó kinyílt. A zenekar tíz éve alakult. Az elmélet téves feltevésen alapul. Magyarországon kevés műemlék maradt fenn. A prognózisról bebizonyosodott, hogy téves. Ez a jelenség nem korlátozódik a fővárosra. Nem sebesült meg senki sem. A szomszéd szobából zaj hallatszott. A királyság elveszett. A gyanú eloszlott. Hamarosan nullára csökkennek az esélyeink. Elmaradt az értekezlet. A vihar során sokan fedél nélkül maradtak. A termés nagyrésze elpusztult. Ha nem kerül sor megfelelő intézkedésekre, az ország élelmiszertermelése veszélybe kerülhet. Vidéken nevelkedtem. Új javaslatok hangzottak el. Az áru végül nem jutott el a vállalathoz.

5. Translate into English, paying attention to obligatory complements.

A rendezvényt beharangozó sajtótájékoztatón Csepregi Miklós, a Magyar Reklámszövetség elnöke arról **tájékoztatott**, *hogy a hazánkban működő cégek évente több mint százmilliárd forintot költenek el reklámra. A felmérés részleteit a jövő heti konferencián ismertetik, ahol* **szó lesz** *a globalizációnak a reklámszakmára gyakorolt hatásairól is.*[30]

6. Which sounds more natural? Write a short text providing a context for your choice.

I didn't go to the party because they didn't invite me.
I didn't go to the party because I wasn't invited.
I didn't go to the party because I wasn't invited by them.
We cannot overemphasise the importance of a good seed-bed for sugar beet.
The importance of a good seed-bed for sugar beet cannot be overemphasised.
The importance of a good seed-bed for sugar beet cannot be overemphasised by us.

7. Some of the verbs in the following passage have been changed from the active into the passive or vice versa. Restore the original text.

The Great Wall of China

The Chinese built the Great Wall of China in the third century BC to keep out the raiding Tartars of Mongolia. They probably employed over 500,000 workers to build it. Even today, the wall is in a wonderful state of preservation.

They constructed this marvellous structure of brick and stone. The sides have battlements through which they could discharge weapons.

They provided all large cities of China with similar walls, and they closed the gates at night to give the citizens protection against surprise attack.[31]

[30] Magyar Nemzet, 25.08.2000.
[31] 1000 Questions and Answers. London: Treasure Press 1990.

8. Discuss.

- Do you find it difficult to use the Passive in English?
- Is the Passive avoided by Hungarian learners?

9. Complete these sentences with *have, take, make, give or do.*

It's time we .... arrangements for the journey. Suddenly our guide ... an exclamation. I haven't yet ... my bath. She has ... research into molecular biology. In the morning I ... exercises. The firm ... a survey of people's attitude to foreigners. 'Don't ... personal remarks', said Alice sternly. The sight of the accident ... me a shock. Go and ... a wash. I ... the car a good wash. The storm has ... a lot of damage to the roof. She ... good use of her abilities. She ... a deep sigh. Has the police ... an arrest? He often ... inappropriate comments, unintentionally ...ing offence.

10. Translate into English:

Mélyet sóhajtott. Panaszt tettem. Udvariasan meghajolt. A hír valóságosan sokkolt. Jól kisírta magát. Estem egy nagyot. Nagy hatást tett rám. Viszonyt folytattak. Érintkezésbe léptünk. Elemeztük az adatokat. Éppen zuhanyoztunk. Csörögj rám, ha elfelejteném. Furcsán felnevetett. Furcsán rámtekintett. Alaposan lemostam a kocsit. Ellátogatott Londonba. A külügyminiszter látogatást tett Brüsszelbe. Az elnök hosszú beszédet tartott. Mindenki figyeljen. Tavaly tettünk egy körutat Görögországban. Erőfeszítéseket tettünk a probléma megoldására. A 19. században a biológia tudománya jelentős fejlődést ért el. Ez a szer kiválóan irtja a tarackot.

11. Transform.

We analysed the samples thoroughly. → We made a thorough analysis of the samples.
We analysed the data carefully. /make/
We have calculated the costs. /make/
The professor removed the tumor completely. /perform/
I have studied this reaction thoroughly. /make/
Scientists measured the changes regularly. /perform/
They observed the birds' habits directly. /conduct/
He determined radiation levels accurately /conduct/

12. Use predicative adjectives instead of verbs in these sentences. Choose from this list: *ignorant of, critical of, supportive of, dominant, objectionable*

He didn't know anything about my problems. Most women strongly object to this habit. Arsenal dominated after the break. The report criticized the

quality of education. Our department supports all students who wish to engage in research.

13. Use DeepL Translate to translate these sentences into Hungarian/English, and then have the translations back-translated into English/Hungarian. Discuss the results.

Sulphuric acid is highly corrosive to metals. He was careful to avoid me. You're surely delirious. She was highly indignant with him. Cholera was rampant in the country. He was conclusive of his beliefs. If the result of the blood-test is negative, it is conclusive of the case.

Nagyapám mindig gyanakvással kezelte a jog képviselőit. Bízom benne (confident), hogy megnyerjük a főnyereményt. A döntéshozók abszolút semmit nem tudtak (ignorant of) a kérdés műszaki (engineering) vonatkozásairól.

14. Use the predicative adjectives in the list below or participles to translate these sentences into English.

ablaze, afraid, ashamed (of), asleep, averse (to), aware (of), bored, careful, conducive (to), confident (of), corrosive (to), critical (of), delirious, dependent (on), disruptive, expressive (of), glad, imitative (of), indicative (of), mistaken, opposed to, reflective (of), scared (of), silent, supportive (of)

Az egész épület lángolt. Szégyellte magát. Félek, hogy ez nem lesz elég. Mindenki hallgatott. A gyerek már aludt. Az elnök támogatja a tevékenységünket. Nagyon idegenkedem a békáktól. Tudom, hogy amit teszek nem helyes. Vigyázz, hogy nehogy megharagítsd. Bízom benne, hogy jól sikerül a vizsgád. Ez a lépés nem segíti elő a köz üdvét. A kénsav korrodálja a fémeket. Ő mindig csak kritizál engem. Egyes gyerekek zavarják a rendet. Nem függök teljesen a szüleimtől. Te félrebeszélsz. Tekintete félelmet fejezett ki. Ez a szöveg Shakespeare stílusát utánozza. Ez az intézkedés a kormány gyengeségére utal. Ez a válasz tükrözte az egyéniségét. Örülök a találkozásnak. Unatkozott. Rettegett a feleségétől. Erőteljesen ellenezte a tervet. Tévedsz.

15. Look up these words in a bilingual dictionary.

A. ellát, elkerül, elkísér

B. összecsomagol, összegyűjt, összehány, összeköt, összepiszkít, összepisili magát, összerak, összever

C. *megtud, betud, kitud, letud*

D. *visszahúz, visszajut, visszametsz, visszanéz, visszavág*

E. *végignéz, végigmegy, végigvág, végigcsinál*

16. Classify these verbs into several groups according to the meaning expressed by the prefix. Identify the devices used in English to express the same meanings.

félreáll	*stand aside*
félreállít	*by-pass, pass over*
félrebeszél	*rave, wander, be delirious*
félrecsap	*cock (one's hat)*
félredob	*throw aside*
félreért	*misunderstand*
félreesik	*lie far from*
félrefordít	*turn aside, avert one's eyes*
félrefordít	*mistranslate*
félrehajol	*turn aside*
félrehúz	*pull/draw aside*
félreismer	*misjudge*
félrelép	*misstep, take a misstep, blunder, take/make a false step, commit a misconduct, make a slip, slip; be unfaithful to, cuckold one's husband*
félrelök	*push aside*
félremagyaráz	*misinterpret*
félrenéz	*glance aside, look away*
félresikerül	*fail, miscarry, go askew*
félresöpör	*brush aside*
félreszól	*speak aside*
félretaszít	*shove aside*
félretesz	*put away/aside/on one side, lay aside, set aside /apart/by, lay/put by, lay up, mark off, reserve, save*
félrevág	*throw away, discard, cock/tilt one's hat rakishly, bevel, splay, scarf*
félrever	*toll the church bell (to indicate danger and to warn people)*
félrevezet	*mislead, misguide*
félrevonul	*withdraw, retire*

17. Translate into English.

Félretette a pénzt/könyvet/munkát; félretette az aktát/javaslatot/gondjait/ügyet/előítéleteit, félretett valamit nehezebb időkre; minden egyebet félretéve.

Összecsomagoltam a holmijaimat. Tegnap este huligánok összeverték. Összehányta a szép szőnyegeimet. Végignézett rajtam. Végignéztük a filmet. Végigment az utcán. Megtudtam a nevét. Megírtam a levelet. Várj, mindjárt megkeresem. Meghallgatod a versemet? Betörték az ajtót. Kitört a szék lába. Összetörte a szívemet. Széttört a váza. Félredobta a törülközőt. A fiatalok félrevonultak. Téged félrevezettek. Ezt a mondatot félrefordítottam.

Chapter 5

HUNGARIAN–ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL CONTRASTS: THE NOUN PHRASE

5.1 Noun Plurals

According to a well-known Hungarian song, *"Az a szép, akinek a szeme kék"*. Are we talking of one-eyed girls?

Of course not. One of the first differences that a Hungarian learner of English meets is the plural of nouns after numerals. In Hungarian nouns remain in the singular in such cases:

három kismalac [Ø]	*– three little pigs*

This difficulty is relatively easily overcome, but then the learner is faced with further complications:

minden/mindegyik asztal [0]	*– all the tables, but: every table, each table*
olló [0]	*– scissors*
bizonyítékok	*– evidence [Ø]*
információk	*– information [Ø]*
gépek, berendezések	*– equipment [Ø]*
bútorok	*– furniture [Ø]*

It is less often noticed that the plural is used in possessive constructions like the following:

a költők élete [Ø]	*– the lives of poets*
Megváltoztatta az elhatározását.	*– S/he has changed her mind.*
Megváltoztatták az elhatározásukat.	*– They have changed their minds.*

Az ország legtöbb területén nőtt a talajok nitráttartalma. –
In most areas of the country soil nitrate levels have increased.

In the last example one must take into account the fact that *nitrate level* was measured in different places, so according to the logic of English it must be plural.

By the time learners reach advanced level, they will know that words denoting groups of people are singular in form but may take a singular or plural verb, depending on their meaning. Nouns of this type include, among others, *crew, team, staff, board, crowd* (= a nézők), *livestock* (= gazdasági állatok, jószág) and *family*:

A családom örül, hogy megismerhet. – My family are glad to meet you.

The L1–L2 contrasts lead to interference when the learner has no time to think: in such cases, the default solution is the singular, as in Hungarian:

*A családom örül, hogy megismerhet. – *My family is glad to see you.*

5.2 Concord

After coordinated subjects Hungarian uses a singular verb, while English a plural one:

Jön Jancsi és Juliska. – *Jack and Jill are coming.*

This, despite the difference, is again relatively easily learnt and mistakes are made only under pressure. A more complicated problem arises in the following cases:

Hetvenezer forintot fizettek ki neki. – *Seventy thousand forints was paid to him.*

The situation is ironic: learners are told to use a plural verb after a plural noun, and when they have acquired this 'habit', they are told that *seventy thousand forints* is regarded as an indivisible sum, and it will take a singular verb – just like in Hungarian.

Subject-verb concord may be a problem in sentences beginning with *there is/are,* followed by mixed singular and plural nouns. In such cases, the verb will agree with whichever noun is closer to it:

In the corner there was a table and four chairs.
In the corner there were four chairs and a table.

Some English nouns, although they have both a singular and a plural form, tend to be used more often in the plural:

Növekedett az élelmiszerimport. *Food imports have increased.*

To understand the use of *import*, study the entry for this word in The Britannica Dictionary:

Learner's definition of IMPORT[32]
1 a [count]**:** something that is imported**:** a product brought into a country to be sold there
- This car is an *import* from Italy.
- They sell luxury *imports* from around the world.

b [noncount]**:** the act of importing something**:** IMPORTATION
- laws affecting the *import* of foreign goods
- an *import* tax

The difference between *import* and *imports* can also be studied in this sentence:

> *Import means the import of goods from abroad by a legitimate way. Often, states in the interests of their companies establish restrictions for imports. Az import a külföldről származó áruk törvényes úton történő behozatalát jelenti. Gyakran előfordul, hogy az államok a vállalataik érdekében korlátozásokat vezetnek be az importra vonatkozóan.*

In the Hungarian translation the meaning of *import* is synonymous with *importálás, behozatal* ('importation') in the first sentence. In the second, it is synonymous with *importált áruk* ('imported goods').

5.3 The articles – preview

Supply articles, where necessary:

___ Ships/ships of ___ desert. ___ Camels/camels were domesticated more than 3,000 years ago, and to this day, ___ humans depend on them for ___ transport across ___ arid environments. They can easily carry ___ extra 200 pounds (90 kilograms) while walking 20 miles (32 kilometers) ___ day in ___ harsh desert. ___ Camels/camels travel as fast as ___ horses but can also endure ___ legendary periods of ___ time without ___ food or ___ water. ___ Humans have used ___ camels for their wool, milk, meat, leather, and even dung, which can be used for ___ fuel.

___ D/dromedary camel, also known as ___ Arabian camel, exists today only as ___ a domesticated animal. About 90 percent of ___ world's camels are ___ dromedaries. There are two types of ___ Bactrian camels: wild and domesticated. ___ W/wild Bactrian camels are much trimmer, with smaller humps and less hair, than ___ domesticated Bactrian camels[33].

[32] https://www.britannica.com/dictionary/import Last accessed 14.12.2022.
[33] https://animals.sandiegozoo.org/animals/camel. Last accessed 05.12.2020.

The use of the articles is one of the biggest problems for advanced level Hungarian learners of English. In general, Hungarians tend to overuse definite articles in English. The causes of this tendency are related to contrasts between the rules for article usage in English and Hungarian.

In view of the importance of this issue, in this section we shall first survey the uses of the indefinite, the definite and the zero article in English, and then compare them to their Hungarian counterparts. The survey is based on Quirk at al. (1985).

5.3.1 The English article system

Articles determine the reference of a noun. *A dog* refers to a specific *dog*, but does not indicate which dog is meant, so it is indefinite. *The dog* refers to a specific dog: it is definite because the listener is supposed to know which dog is indicated. *Dogs* does not refer to specific dogs, but to dogs in general.

The indefinite, the definite and the zero article in English can express *specific, generic, definite and indefinite reference,* as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. *The English article system*

Specific	Definite	*the*	*The back door of the house was left open.* *He went in by the front door.* *The milk went sour.*
		zero	*Peter lives in New York.* *He was elected president in 2000.* *She was taken to hospital. In the evening they went to town.*
	Indefinite	*a(n)* zero	*It is stuffy here; let's open a window.* *Would you like (some) wine?*
Unspecific	Indefinite	*a(n)* zero	*You need a friend.* *We had wine on the table. I often talk to people.*
Generic		zero *a(n)* *the*	*Cats are cute, but dogs are intelligent. Grass is green.* *A cat may look at a king.* *The elephant is the largest land animal.*

The zero article Ø

Like *a/an* with singular countable nouns, the zero article signals indefiniteness with uncountable nouns (1) and plural countable nouns (2):

1 *We have **tea** and **coffee**, but no milk.*
2 *We have **friends** in high places.*

The reference here is to an indefinite number or amount (often equivalent to *some*). This is similar to non-specific reference expressed by *a(n)*. In such sentences *some* can be inserted without a significant change of meaning:

1 *We have* ***some tea*** *and* ***coffee****, but no milk.*
2 *We have some* ***friends*** *in high places.*

The zero article can also express generic reference:

Life is hard. Time is money. Music shall live.
Words are lightly spoken. Tigers are dangerous.

Proper names, which are assumed to have the zero article, have specific, definite reference:

Mary, Chicago, Mount Everest, Queen Elizabeth

There are also some special uses of the zero article with singular countable nouns, expressing specific, definite reference, where otherwise we would expect *the* or *a/an* to occur:

He was ***captain*** *of the team.*
He was re-elected ***president*** *in November.*
The ceremony took place in ***church.*** *He travelled from* ***country*** *to* ***country.***
They are going out for ***dinner****. We see* ***eye*** *to* ***eye; face*** *to* ***face, body*** *and* ***soul;***
travel by ***air/car/horse;*** *send by* ***satellite link***

The indefinite article

Only singular countable nouns can take the indefinite article.
The indefinite article expresses indefinite meaning, which means that we assume that the listener cannot identify the person/thing that we are talking about, although we have a specific person/thing in mind (*indefinite, specific reference*).

I have brought you a book. There is a policeman behind you.

Therefore, *a(n)* is used to introduce a new specific entity into the discourse. It can often be found in the first line of news items:

A Long Melford pensioner was in council accommodation last night after a blaze in her home. A passer-by who noticed smoke billowing from the premises raised the alarm.

In addition to specific and generic reference, *a(n)* may have *unspecific reference*. In the case of unspecific reference the noun phrase does not refer to a particular thing or person, but to any member of a class of things or persons. This is similar to generic reference (see below), but it is not quite the same. Compare:

I have a steady girl.
I need a steady girl.

When *a(n)* is used in a generic sense (*generic reference*), we talk about things or persons in general. In this case, the article indicates that the noun may refer to any member of the class:

A cat has nine lives.
A fairy story is a story that prepares children to read newspapers.
A plough is a farm tool for loosening or turning the soil.

The indefinite article is also used in a weakened numerical meaning. This is matched by a similar use of the Hungarian indefinite article:

Egy fillérem sincs. – *I haven't got a penny.*

While English and Hungarian are congruent with respect to the specific meaning of their indefinite articles, they are divergent with respect to generic meaning:

A horse is a beautiful animal. – **Egy ló szép állat.*

The English indefinite article regularly corresponds to the Hungarian definite article in definitions or in noun phrases where the endorsing item *olyan* is used:

A horse is <u>an</u> animal that has four legs. – *A ló <u>olyan</u> állat, amelynek négy lába van.*
The only solution is <u>an</u> agreement that is accepted by all those concerned. – *Az egyetlen megoldás <u>olyan</u> egyezmény, amelyet minden érdekelt fél elfogad.*

It is important to note that countable nouns very rarely occur in the singular in English without an article: they are used with either the definite or the indefinite article. If there is no article in Hungarian, we must decide which article to use:

Elment rendőrt keresni. – *He went to look for a policeman.*
Villával egyél. – *Eat with a fork.*

The definite article *the*

The definite article *the* may have

- specific definite reference, and
- generic reference.

Specific definite reference

Definite reference means that the noun refers to something or someone assumed to be known to both the sender and the receiver. *Definiteness depends on assumed shared knowledge*: the speaker/writer assumes that what they are talking about is known to the listener/hearer either from the situation or from previous discourse:

Hi, Jerry. Are you coming to the party tonight?

Specific definite reference may be situational (exophoric) reference and discourse/textual reference. Situational reference means that an entity is known from the situation: either the immediate situation in which the given piece of communication takes place, or the wider situation, which includes knowledge of the national situation, the world, or even the universe.

There is a grocer's round the corner.
Join the Army and see the world.[34]

Discourse reference means reference to other parts of a piece of discourse. Unknown entities are usually introduced into discourse using the indefinite article. After they have been introduced, they can be treated as 'known' and may be referred to by *the* in subsequent discourse. Discourse reference can be *anaphoric* or *cataphoric.*

The definite article *the* can be used anaphorically to refer back to a previously mentioned item:

A farmer survived more than 27 hours in a freezing snowdrift by building an igloo. Howard Stevenson was found yesterday – with his trousers frozen solid – five feet under the drift.

It can also be used cataphorically. In cataphoric reference definite reference is established by something following later in the text, especially some modifier of the noun e.g. *the centre [of London], the summer [of 2015].*

Generic reference

Reference is generic when a noun phrase refers to the whole class, rather than just one or more members of a class:

[34] https://www.iwm.org.uk/collections/item/object/8847. Last accessed 05.12.2020.

He plays the piano. The elephant is the largest land animal. The reversible plough is useful for fields which need to be kept perfectly flat for irrigation purposes.

5.3.2 Contrasts between English and Hungarian article usage

There are various differences between the use of English and Hungarian articles, but here we shall focus only on the most important and most troublesome issue: generic reference. The above discussion of English articles shows that in English all the three articles *(a(n), the,* and zero) can be used for generic reference:

a(n): with singular countable nouns and designating 'any person or thing of the class'.
zero: with plural and uncountable nouns and referring to the class as a whole.
the: with singular countable nouns

A horse is a beautiful animal.
Horses are beautiful animals.
The horse is a beautiful animal.

In Hungarian, generic reference is expressed by the definite article. However, the definite article is also used for specific definite reference. Thus, we get the following picture.

A macska leült a lábtörlőre.	(specific)	– *The cat sat on the map.*
A macska nagyon okos állat.	(generic)	– *Cats are very smart animals.* – *A cat is a very smart animal.* – *The cat is a very smart animal.*
Beleugrott a vízbe.	(specific)	– *He jumped into the water.*
A víz élet.	(generic)	– *Water is life.*

Note that in the case of uncountable nouns the definite article is not used for generic reference at all. Only the zero article is used:

A víz élet.	– *Water is life.*
A tej fehér.	– *Milk is white*
A történelem nem ismétli magát.	– *History does not repeat itself.*

However, adjectives used as heads of noun phrases take the definite article in generic reference, as in *The Naked and the Dead.*[35]

The differences between generic reference in English and Hungarian are summarised in Table 6.

[35] The title of a novel by Norman Mailer.

Table 6. *Generic reference in English and in Hungarian*

English		**Hungarian**	
Most common: zero Next most common: *a(n)* Least common: *the*	*music, men* *a man* *the English*	a, az	*a zene, az ember(ek), a férfi, az angolok*
Music belongs to everyone. *Men have little respect for life.* *A man is a man.* *The English speak various dialects of English.*		*A zene mindenkié.* *Az emberek nem tisztelik az életet.* *A férfi az férfi.* *Az angolok az angol nyelv különböző dialektusait beszélik.*	

5.3.2.1 Degree of difficulty

Every time the learner wants to use a noun phrase in English, they have to decide whether they are making specific or generic reference. In generic reference the zero article is used with noncount nouns, while in the case of count nouns learners must make a further decision: all the three articles can be used for generic reference, but it is the zero article (with the noun in the plural) that is the most common, and the definite article the least common. A general rule of thumb is that the zero article + plural noun is the safest bet, while the definite article *the* is rarely needed.

Trains are faster than ships.
A train is faster than a ship.
The train is faster than the ship.

There is some semantic difference among the three forms of expression: the zero article followed by a plural noun refers to *trains* in general, the indefinite article indicates that *any train* is faster than *any ship*, and *the train* refers to the *class or category of trains*.

This contrast may be regarded as a 'divergent phenomenon', i.e. the learner is faced with the task of making a choice where there is no choice in their L1, and in choosing they have to appreciate subtle differences in meaning. According to classical CA, divergent categories pose the greatest problems to learners, and – although there is no direct link between difference and learning difficulty – experience shows that this difference DOES indeed cause great difficulty for Hungarian learners of English, both in speech and writing, including translating.

Since the definite article *a(z)* is identified by Hungarian learners with English *the*, and the difference between generic and specific meaning is not perceived as a marked difference, its transferability is high, misleading learners, inducing them to use *the* automatically where they would use *a(z)* in Hungarian.

The incidence of inappropriately used English definite articles by Hungarian learners may be expected to be higher in speech than in writing. In writing English and translating into English there is more time to decide whether a definite article is needed or not. If the noun is followed by an *of*-construction it is definite, and the definite article is safe to use. In a similar way, postmodifying prepositional phrases and relative clauses make the head noun definite:

a főváros utcái	– *the streets of the capital*
az északra vezető út	– *the road which leads north /leading north*
a hegyvidéki utak	– *the roads in the mountains*

The noun following the preposition *of* may or may not take the definite article, depending on whether it has specific definite reference of generic reference:

a fejlődő országok problémái	– *the problems of developing countries* (generic: developing countries in general) *the problems of the developing countries* (specific: the developing countries we have been talking about; all the developing countries)

Interestingly, in some cases the Hungarian definite article corresponds to the English indefinite article:

Régóta probléma a kórház hiánya. –	*The lack of a hospital has been a problem.*

Before brand names and other proper names there is usually no definite article, except when it is preceded by an appositive (*értelmező jelzői*) noun:

A Biopon nagyon jó mosószer.	– *Biopon is a very good detergent.*
A Biopon mosószer nagyon jó.	– *The detergent Biopon is very good.*
Ezen a talajon a Proctor a legjobb.	– *Proctor is the best on this soil.*
Ezen a talajon a Proctor fajta a legjobb.	– *The variety Proctor is the best on this soil.*

In summary, there are certain formal clues that may indicate the use of the definite article in English, but it always depends on what kind of reference we want to make: if we suppose that a given entity is known to our interlocutor and it can be uniquely identified from the context or previous discourse, then we are making specific reference and the article *the* can and should be used. If we want to refer to things in general, then it is better to use the zero or the indefinite article.

5.4 Modification in English and Hungarian – preview

5.4.1. Study the noun phrases (NP) in the following text and discuss which NP would require a change in word order if it was translated into Hungarian and how they contrast with their Hungarian correspondents.

On June 30, 1908, at approximately 7:17 AM, an immense explosion occurred in the region of Stony Tunguska, an area located approximately forty miles north-northwest of Vanavara, Siberia. The explosion was sufficient to register as tremors of earth-quake-proportions on seismographs at Irkutsk, roughly 550 miles to the south. Seismographs also registered in Moscow, the Tsarist Empire capital, St. Petersburg, Germany (in the city of Jena over 3,000 miles away), in Java (Indochina), and Washington D.C.

The Tunguska explosion exceeded in sheer energy the enormous size, long-term effects, and destructive capability of the volcanic eruptions at Thera, a Greek island north of Crete, and now known as Santorini (circa 1400 B.C.E.), Italy's Vesuvius (August 24, C.E. 79) and the island of Krakatoa located between Sumatra and Java (August 26, 1883). The Tunguska blast easily dwarfed the Hiroshima and Nagasaki atomic bombs and all of the nuclear tests of the early 1950s.[36]

5.5 Left-branching and right-branching modification

Modification in Hungarian is left-branching: most modifiers precede the noun being modified. The only postmodifying structure in Hungarian is the relative clause. In titles, postmodifying adverbial phrases may be acceptable: *Élet a Marson; Élet a fagypont alatt; Élet a halál után* etc.

Modification in English is basically right-branching: except for adjectives, most modification structures (prepositional phrases, participles, relative clauses) are postmodifiers, as shown in Table 7.

Table 7. *Modification in English and Hungarian*

Hungarian				**English**		
tágas	szoba			spacious	room	
háromlábú	szék			three-legged	chair	
esernyős	férfi				man	with an umbrella
nagyértékű	könyv				book	of great value

[36] https://www.bibliotecapleyades.net/ciencia/esp_ciencia_tunguska12.htm. Last accessed 14.12.2022.

Hungarian				**English**		
barna-öltönyös	férfi				man	in the brown suit
a baloldalt levő	ajtó				the door	on the left
az ablak mellett álló	lány				the girl	standing by the window
művelésre alkalmas	föld				land	suitable for cultivation
egyezmény elérésére tett	erőfeszítés				effort	(made) to reach an agreement
	az az ember,	aki éppen most érkezett			the man	who has just arrived

These differences may cause fewer problems in oral communication, where noun phrases are not very heavily modified. However, they tend to lead to difficulties in written production and translating, particularly in the L1–L2 direction. For this reason, most of the following sections, as well as the exercises, will focus on the problems that these structures may cause in Hungarian–English translation.

5.6 Adjectival attributes

Adjectives precede the head noun both in English and Hungarian. However, in Hungarian they *always* precede the noun, while in English they are postposed in some cases:

tulajdonképpeni irodalom – *literature proper*
a jelenlevő tagok – *the members present*
a rendelkezésünkre álló információ – *the information available*

Adjectives will also be postposed in English if they have complements:

művelésre alkalmas föld – *land suitable for cultivation*

5.6.1 Comparative adjectives

Comparative adjectives are often used in Hungarian where there is no comparison involved. In such cases, English uses positive degree adjectives:

Már hosszabb ideje távol volt. – *He had been away for a long time.*

This is a case of deceptive transferability, which remains a common source of error for Hungarian learners of English even at advanced level, as noted by Doughty and Thompson in *Problem English* (1983).

A special case is the English adjective *major*, which corresponds to comparative adjectives in Hungarian:

Az ellenség elfoglalta a nagyobb városokat. – *The enemy seized all the major cities.*

Since Hungarian speakers are influenced by the comparative adjective in their native language, they tend to use comparative adjectives in English, too (*greater, bigger, larger*) and to underuse *major*.

5.6.2 Compound and derived adjectives

In some cases, Hungarian compound adjectives nicely correspond to English compound adjectives:

háromlábú szék – *a three-legged chair*
kétcsövű puska – *a double-barrelled gun*
háromnapos konferencia – *a three-day conference*

(Note the absence of the plural in *day* in the last example.) In most cases, however, a prepositional phrase postmodifier will be used:

pirosszemű nyuszi – *a rabbit with a pink eye*
esernyős férfi – *a man with an umbrella*
nagy fontosságú bejelentés – *a statement of great importance*

In some cases, Hungarian compound adjectives may correspond to both a compound adjective and a prepositional phrase postmodifier:

bozontos farkú mókus – *a bushy-tailed squirrel;*
– *a squirrel with a bushy tail*

Hungarian derived adjectives and even compound nouns often correspond to premodifying nouns or prepositional phrase postmodifiers in English:

anyagi kár – *property damage / damage to property*
esőkár – *rain damage / damage (done) by rain*

Adjectives derived from nouns may correspond to two words in English: a noun used as a premodifier and an adjective derived from a Latin stem:

városi emberek – *town people*
városi lakosság – *urban population*
napolaj – *suntan oil*
naptelep – *solar battery*

5.7 Participle attributes

In Hungarian, participle attributes precede the head noun. In English, if a participle modifies a noun and has no complement, it may precede the head noun if it expresses a permanent quality, i.e. it has adjectival force. However, if it retains verbal force, it will follow the head noun. Consider these examples:

A sérült játékosok hétfőn orvosi ellenőrzésre mentek.
The injured players went to a medical check-up on Monday.
Az 1. táblázatban bemutatjuk a kapott eredményeket.
Table 1 presents the results obtained.

These contrasts often lead to error in the written production of Hungarian learners of English, even at proficiency level (e.g. in master's theses), and in translations from Hungarian into English. The cause, apparently, is deceptive transferability.

Both in Hungarian and English, past participles from transitive verbs tend to have a passive meaning:

lopott pénz – ('pénz, amelyet valaki lopott')
stolen money – ('money that has been stolen')

Participles from intransitive verbs cannot have a passive meaning, and there are restrictions on their use in premodification:

**a zokogott majom* – *a majom, amelyik zokogott*
**the sobbed monkey* – *the monkey, which sobbed/was sobbing*

However, there are many exceptions, both in English and Hungarian:

bukott angyal – *a fallen angel*

In Hungarian, past participles from intransitive verbs are increasingly used in preposition, although they often sound odd. In English, a relative clause must be used:

Az ország északi részén pusztított földrengésnek 200 áldozata volt.
The quake that devastated the northern part of the country claimed 200 lives.
Az előretört(?) Tóth a hálóba vágta a labdát.[37]
Tóth, who had moved up, fired into the net.

5.8 Extended participle attributes

Extended participle attributes (bővített jelzős szerkezet) correspond to postmodifiers in English:

egyezmény elérésére tett erőfeszítések	– *efforts made to reach an agreement*
az 1960 óta eltelt időszak	– *the period since 1960*
üvegházhatásról szóló könyv	– *a book on the greenhouse effect*

If the participle is semantically empty, it may be omitted in English:

egyezmény elérésére tett erőfeszítések	– *efforts to reach an agreement*
fegyverzetellenőrzésről szóló egyezmény	– *agreement on arms control, arms control agreement*
csatlakozásról szóló tárgyalások	– *talks on accession*

English prepositional postmodifiers may be further compressed into noun premodifiers:

fegyverzetellenőrzésről szóló egyezmény	– *arms control agreement*
csatlakozásról szóló tárgyalások	– *accession talks*

Extended participle constructions in Hungarian may get very complicated, and may cause considerable difficulty in translating into English since the word order must be completely reorganised:

A helyszíntől 500 kilométerrel távolabb közlekedő Vlagyivosztok felé tartó transzszibériai vasútvonal utazóközönsége …

[37] This is incorrect according to traditional Hungarian grammar, but it often occurs in journalistic language.

Passengers on the Trans-Siberian Express bound for Vladivostok 500 km away from the scene …

Az epicentrumban fekvő és a paradox módon állva maradt fák maradványairól Telegráf-erdőnek elnevezett területen …

In the impact zone, named Telegraph Forest after the remnants of trees that paradoxically remained standing upright …

Conversely, long and complicated postmodifiers in English pose a major challenge in translating into Hungarian. There are two options: turning them into extended premodifiers or transforming them into relative clauses:

The Tunguska explosion exceeded in sheer energy the enormous size, long-term effects, and destructive capability of the volcanic eruptions at Thera, a Greek island north of Crete, and now known as Santorini (circa 1400 B.C.E.), Italy'sVesuvius (August 24, C.E. 79) and the island of Krakatoa located between Sumatra and Java.[38]

a) *A Tunguz meteor okozta robbanás energiája, hosszú távú hatásai és pusztító ereje tekintetében felülmúlta a most Santorini néven ismert, a (görögországi) Krétától északra fekvő Thera-szigeti (kb. i.e. 1400), az olaszországi Vezúv (i.u. 79, augusztus 23) és a Szumátra és Jáva közötti Krakatoa sziget vulkánkitöréseket. (?)*
b) *A Tunguz meteor okozta robbanás energiája, hosszú távú hatásai és pusztító ereje tekintetében felülmúlta azokat a vulkánkitöréseket, amelyek a most Santorini néven ismert, a (görögországi) Krétától északra fekvő Thera-szigeten (kb. i.e. 1400), az olaszországi Vezúvnál (i.u. 79, augusztus 23) és a Szumátra és Jáva közötti Krakatoa szigetnél történtek. (?)*[39]

Post-modifying structures in English may be linear and branching: nouns within a prepositional phrase or a clause may be further postmodified. The translation of such postmodifications into Hungarian requires a lot of grammatical transformations and word order changes.

[38] https://www.bibliotecapleyades.net/ciencia/esp_ciencia_tunguska12.htm. Last accessed 14.12.2022.

[39] The question marks indicate that neither solution yields a fully acceptable, clear translation, so a major reorganisation may be necessary.

5.9 Possessive attributes

The Hungarian possessive attribute ('birtokosjelző') may correspond to various prepositional phrase postmodifiers in English:

az árak emelkedése	*– increase in prices*
elhatározásom oka	*– the reason for my decision*
a nyersanyagok árai	*– prices for raw materials*

5.10 Appositives

Appositives ('értelmező jelző') in English follow the head noun if they refer to a less well-known person or entity or if they are long. In other cases, unlike in Hungarian, they precede the head noun:

Timothy F. Geithner, a Federal Reserve Bank New York-i elnöke
– Timothy F. Geithner, president of the Federal Reserve Bank of New York

Boris Johnson miniszterelnök	*– Prime Minister Boris Johnson*
Clinton volt amerikai elnök	*– former US President Clinton*
Noam Chomsky, a MIT professzora	*– Professor Noam Chomsky of MIT*
A Sheraton szálló	*– Hotel Sheraton*
A B épület	*– Block B*
C-vitamin	*– vitamin C*

5.11 Relative clauses

Hungarian relative clauses usually correspond to English relative clauses, but they may also correspond to postmodifying participle or infinitive clauses or prepositional phrase postmodifiers. This contrast leads to the underuse of participle and prepositional phrase postmodifiers by Hungarian learners.

az az ember, aki éppen most érkezett	*– the man who has just arrived*
a tábornok, akit a hadsereg támogatott	*– the general, (who was) supported by the army*
az a lány, aki az ablak mellett áll	*– the girl (who is) (standing) by the window*
nincs jel, ami arra utalna, hogy	*– there is nothing to suggest that ...*

Hungarian appositive clauses correspond to *that*-clauses or infinitive clauses in English:

> *Az a tény, hogy még nem kaptál üdvözlő lapot a Marsról, nem jelenti azt, hogy nincs rajta értelmes élet.*
> *The fact that you didn't get greeting cards from Mars does not mean that there is no intelligent life there.*
> *Their decision to stay surprised us.*
> *Az a döntésük, hogy maradnak, meglepett minket.*

In narrative texts, relative clauses are often fronted in English. Consider these examples:

> *The general, who was supported by the army, overthrew the government.*
> *⇒ Supported by the army, the general overthrew the government.*
> *A tábornok, akit a hadsereg támogatott, megdöntötte a kormányt.*
> *⇒ A hadsereg által támogatott tábornok megdöntötte a kormányt.*

5.12 tasks

1. Translate.

A.

The economies of industrialised countries are undergoing structural changes.
Schoolwork is not challenging the minds of bright children.
He supported the labour, liberation and peace movements.
More than a million workers are employed in the mining and agricultural sectors.

B.

Ezek az emberek nehéz életet élnek. A benzin ára nő mind a hazai, mind a nemzetközi piacon.
A javaslatokat megtárgyalta a francia és az angol kormány. A tervek szerint összekötik a két ország vasúti rendszerét. Az angol és a francia közlekedési minisztérium magas rangú munkatársai ma összeülnek Londonban, hogy a részleteket megbeszéljék. A British Rail azt a tervet fogja támogatni, amelyik megnyeri mind az angol, mind a francia kormány jóváhagyását.
A repülőgép személyzete tudatában volt [be aware], hogy valami nincs rendben. A Liverpool megnyerte a Liga Kupát. A 2. félidőben az Arsenal volt fölényben [be dominant]. A családom ellenzi ezt a házasságot. A rendőrség tanácstalan volt [be baffled]. A kormány azt tervezi, hogy tovább csökkenti a tanárok fizetését. Nincsenek információk a gép érkezéséről. A bizonyítékok teljesen egyértelműek. Sok jótanácsot adott nekem. Sok ismeretet igényel ez a munka. Sok bizonyítékunk

van ellene. A vállalat sok új berendezést vásárolt. Sok érdekes hírt hallottam, de ezek nem jó hírek. Mindaz az információ, amit kaptunk, tévesnek bizonyult.

2. How many definite articles will there be in the English translation of this text?

*Kétségtelen tehát, hogy **a** legmindennapibb tevékenységeink tetemes része is magában hordja **a** veszély egy-egy elemét. Mennyi veszéllyel kell számolnunk? Észszerűen gondolkodva **a** minimálissal, de **a** legjobb, ha semennyivel sem. **A** hivatásos bokszolás vagy a sárkányrepülés még a legvakmerőbbek számára is túl kockázatosnak tűnik. Autóvezetés? Gondolja csak meg, hogy naponta hányan halnak meg, válnak nyomorékká közlekedési baleset következtében. De a gyaloglás is sok olyan veszélyelemet rejt magában, amit **az** értelem kutató tekintete hamarosan felfed. Zsebtolvajok, kipufogógázok, beomló házak, **a** bankrablók és a rendőrség közötti tűzharcok, amerikai vagy szovjet űrszondák fehéren izzó törmelékei – **a** sor vég nélküli – és csak **az** őrült teszi ki magát meggondolatlanul ezeknek **a** veszélyeknek. A legjobb otthon maradni. De **a** biztonság ott is csak viszonylagos. Mennyi veszélyt rejt **a** lépcső, **a** konyha, **a** fürdőszoba megannyi csapdája, **a** csúszós padló, **a** gyűrött szőnyeg, vagy egész egyszerűen **a** kés, villa, olló – nem is szólva **a** gázról, **a** forró vízről, **az** elektromos áramról! **Az** egyetlen okos végkövetkeztetés minden látszat szerint csak az lehet, hogy reggel már ne is keljünk fel. De milyen védelmet biztosít **az** ágy **a** földrengéssel szemben? És mi történik akkor, amikor **az** állandó fekvés felfekvésekhez vezet?*[40]

3. Translate the following text, paying special attention to pre- and postmodifiers

Britain's Medallion Men win no medals[41]

The most hated man in Britain is probably an estate agent with close-set eyes, a ginger beard, white socks, and a medallion round his neck.

There is a mobile phone in his pocket and a gnome in his garden. He is a jogger. His wife wears white stilettos.

Worst of all, he is a Des O'Connor fan.

A new survey has discovered that just one glance at these types of people is enough to inspire major prejudice from fellow human beings.

Others who are instantly disliked include people who wear Jesus sandals, Millwall supporters, and those with limp handshakes.

London-based management consultants Sound Thinking quizzed people in pubs and on tubes and buses about their pet hates. They came up with a 50-strong list of social groups most susceptible to the "sneer factor".

[40] In: Watzlawick, P.: *A helyzet reménytelen, de nem súlyos*. Budapest, Helikon, p. 41–43. The original English text can be found in *the Key to the tasks*.

[41] The Daily Telegraph, 22.11.1990.

Germans by the swimming pool, anyone with ginger hair or a limp handshake, Volvo drivers and Bacardi and coke drinkers are among those guaranteed to attract contempt from British bigots.

So are owners of mobile phones or garden gnomes. American tourists, joggers, people with close-set eyes, balding men with swept-over hair, and, strangely, bigots.

Company founder Mark Brown, who compiled the list as part of a training course for managers, said we should try harder to stop pigeon-holing people.

"We do not want to turn everyone into wishy-washy liberals with no views at all," he added. "But we hope we can help people give others the benefit of the doubt rather than the benefit of their prejudices."

Flamboyant novelist Barbara Cartland said none of the pet hates on Sound Thinking's list bothered her, but she had plenty of her own.

"The thing I dislike more than anything is women who wear trousers. And I hate jumpsuits," she said.

TV personality Robert Kilroy-Silk hardly had to pause for thought when asked about his pet hates: "People with anything hanging in their cars – fluffy dice, boxing gloves or nodding dogs. They are dipsticks!"

Des O'Connor, himself the target of much bigotry, would not comment. But his Press agent Clifford Elson groaned: "Oh dear here we go again, poor old Des. It goes on and on but he's certainly not a bigot himself."

4. Translate into English.

Az elhangzott szavak mély benyomást tettek rám. A bemutatott számadatok semmit nem bizonyítanak. Küldöm a kért könyveket. Összesöpörte a törött üveget. A vizsgált probléma a szervezéssel volt kapcsolatos. A kapott eredményeket az 1. táblázat mutatja. Vásároltam egy használt autót. Az alkalmazott módszerek megfeleltek a kitűzött célnak. A leírt események elszomorították. Megérkeztek a rendelt könyvek. Az elemzett tendenciák tovább folytatódnak. Az említett nevek között ott volt az elnöké is. A megfigyelt jelenségek nem bizonyítják a hipotézist.

A számított átlagok hibásak. Az egész elképzelés ellentmond a kialakult tudományos gondolkodásnak.

5. Transform.

London talks – talks in London
Rome visit; wage demand; Iraq crisis; national security advisor; guerilla attack; defence co-operation; security conference; high-quality articles; low-cost materials; scientific research centre; Paris students

the area around Manchester – the Manchester area

the crisis in October; advisor on foreign affairs; an attack by guerillas; a conference on security; articles of high quality; preparations for an anniversary; a report on the crisis; a hold-up in a supermarket; the resolution of 1967

6. Translate into English.

indiai vezetőkkel folytatott megbeszélései, a 80-as évek végén lezajlott fesztiválok, rendkívüli jelentőségű esemény, fegyvereladásokról szóló döntés, fejlődő országoknak történő fegyvereladások, fejlődő országoknak történő fegyvereladásokról szóló döntés, Magyarországra irányuló kínai export, nagyértékű festmény, hasznavehetetlen ember, jelentőséggel nem bíró esemény, kilátással rendelkező szoba, kilátással nem rendelkező szoba, a január 20-i kongresszuson tartott beszéde, az alattunk levő lakásban lakó nő, egy Londonba tartó repülőgép fedélzetén levő utasok, londoni látogatás, levél a szerkesztőhöz, létfontosságú döntés

7. Supply the missing prepositions.

The need ... change was urgent. The reasons ... his behaviour became clear only later. His visit ... the island was short. He was reading a novel ... Lawrence. In a letter ... the President, the Prime Minister repeated his proposal. There is strong support ... our plan. He is an expert ... Italian opera. He bought a painting ... Raffaello. His emphasis ... security was justified. I have a guest ... Australia. An attack ... terrorists was expected. He was standing in front of a picture ... Monet. I bought a book ... butterflies.

8. Identify the participle attributes in this Hungarian text and translate them into English.

A tunguz-rejtély: Még mindig nem tudni, mi pusztított[42]

Titokzatos

Kutatók már százhét éve próbálkoznak a Tunguz-rejtély megfejtésével, de jobb híján mást nem mondanak, mint azt, hogy az maga a tökéletes bűntény: belülről bezárt szoba, van egy hulla, de nincs fegyver, tettes és indíték.

1908. június 30-án reggel 7 óra 13 perckor a Vlagyivosztok felé robogó transzszibériai expressz utasait az eget keresztülhasító fénycsóva, majd a napot is elhomályosító villanás kápráztatta el. Percek múlva a rázkódó talaj miatt kisiklással fenyegetett szerelvény vészfékezéssel megállt. A vonatról leszálló utasoknak pillanatok alatt megperzselődött az arca az intenzív elektromágneses sugárzástól – idézi a korabeli tudósításokat a toochee.reblog.hu portál.

[42] Blikk, 02.10.2015.

„Felvillant a hatalmas fény. Egy óriási tűzgolyó takarta el az eget...” – mesélte a tunguzi eseményekről a hírre kiérkező hírlapíróknak Szergej Szemjonovics földműves. Az emberiség írott történelmének egyik legrejtélyesebb katasztrófájáról jóval többet azóta sem derített ki a tudomány.

Űrbéli tárgyra is gyanakodtak

Mind a mai napig nem tisztázott, hogy mi is robbant fel a közép-szibériai Tunguszka és Léna folyók által határolt tajga felett azon a bizonyos kora reggelen. Más magyarázat az egészre nincs, mint az, hogy egy, a légkörünkbe behatolt űrbéli objektum okozta az írott történelem egyik legerősebb és legrejtélyesebb kozmikus eredetű robbanását. A gigantikus detonáció 6-8 kilométer magasságban következett be a tajga felett, szerencsére a lakott településektől távoli, kietlen vidéken. A robbanás okozta lökéshullám ugyanis az epicentrumtól 65 kilométeres távolságban fekvő Vanavara település lakóit is földhöz csapta, és a falu valamennyi házában betörte az ajtókat, ablakokat. A helyszíntől 500 kilométerrel távolabb közlekedő transzszibériai vasútvonal utazóközönsége is a szokatlanul világos fénycsóvára lett figyelmes, ugyanakkor félelmetes dübörgést és erős rengést is érzékelt. A robbanás energiáját 10-20 megatonna TNT robbanási energiájával egyenértékűre becsülik. Az epicentrumban fekvő és a paradox módon állva maradt fák maradványairól Telegráf-erdőnek elnevezett területen mintegy 80 kilométeres sugarú koncentrikus körben közel nyolcmillió fenyőfa dőlt ki és semmisült meg. A pusztítás egyetlen emberi áldozata a rejtélyes csapáspont közelében nyáját legeltető jakut rénszarvas-pásztor volt, aki többszáz rénszarvasával együtt a hatalmas hőenergiától egyszerűen elpárolgott.

Megzavarta a föld mágneses erőterét

Szemtanúk beszámolói szerint a felrobbanó objektum fényereje legalább olyan erős volt, mint a Napé. A jelenség a Richter-skála szerinti 4.5-5 erősségű földmozgást okozott, amit még többezer kilométeres távolságból is kimutattak a műszerek. Az irkutszki obszervatóriumban a jelenség után pár másodperccel több óráig tartó komoly zavarokat észleltek a Föld mágneses erőterében.

A távoli területre az első tudományos expedíció csak 1927-ben jutott el. A kutatókat megdöbbentette a kidőlt fákkal borított, végeláthatatlannak tűnő kísérteties táj. A legfurcsább azonban az volt, hogy nem találtak becsapódási nyomot, nem volt kráter, ez pedig kizárta a vélelmezett, nagy tömegű meteorral történt ütközés teóriáját.

9. Translate into English.

elveszett világ, megbírságolt autósok, leírt események, rögzített tények, felnőtt fiú, rejtett tehetség, bukott angyal, megszegett ígéret, eltűnt kincs, veszélyeztetett fajok

10. Translate into Hungarian.
company founder Mark Brown; TV personality Robert Kilroy-Silk; Hungarian inventor László Oroszi; Hungarian national oil and gas group MOL; Zsolt Hernádi, President-CEO of MOL; Managing Director Robert Line; French vehicle group Renault.

11. Translate into English and add an appositive.
az MTI, a Fradi, a TT (nevű) svéd hírügynökség, a Reuter; Kovács István akadémikus, Kovács István, az akadémia elnöke; Fukar Béla gazdasági miniszter; a kutya szó, az Állattenyésztés története c. kiállítás, a B oldal, a C. szakasz

12. Translate into Hungarian.
The conference held in Rome was attended by 300 participants.
The conference on economic cooperation held in Rome last week was attended by 300 participants.
The professor heading the delegation is a biologist.
The professor heading the ten-member delegation of the University of Lyons at the conference on biochemical research to be held in Budapest next week is a biologist.
One of the questions discussed was the refugee situation.
One of the questions discussed in the talks between US President Donald Trump and President Macron of France in Paris last week was the refugee situation.

13. Translate into English. Check your translation of the underlined words with DeepL Translate.

A nemesfémek nélküli teljes <u>árubehozatal</u> 2021 novemberében 2,0 milliárd fonttal (4,9%-kal) nőtt, ami az uniós <u>behozatal</u> 0,8 milliárd fontos (4,5%-os) növekedésének és a nem uniós országokból származó behozatal 1,1 milliárd fontos (5,2%-os) emelkedésének tudható be.

Az elmúlt hónapokban továbbra is az üzemanyagok <u>behozatala</u> volt az EU és az EU-n kívüli országok közötti <u>importkülönbség</u> fő mozgatórugója, annak ellenére, hogy a 2021. októberi szintekhez képest kis mértékben csökkent.

A nemesfémek nélküli teljes <u>áruexport</u> 2021 novemberében 0,3 milliárd fonttal (1,0%-kal) csökkent, ami teljes egészében az EU-n kívüli országokba irányuló <u>kivitel</u> 0,3 milliárd fontos (2,1%-os) csökkenésének köszönhető, miközben az uniós országokba irányuló <u>kivitel</u> stagnált.

14. Translate.
az árak növekedése, a hallgatók létszámának növekedése, a tengerszint emelkedése, a birtokméretek növekedése, az autóeladások növekedése, a ráfordítások növekedése, a kivitel növekedése

15. Transform.

Model: *Rice, which is cultivated in almost all Asian countries, is a very important grain crop.*
– Cultivated in almost all Asian countries, rice is a very important grain crop.
The new coursebook, which is intended for beginners, provides practice in basic grammar and vocabulary.
This small town, which is avoided by most tourists, is an oasis of tranquillity.
Tourism, which is "played" by several million people, is like a game of musical chairs.
Mrs. Smith, who was an intelligent woman, understood her situation perfectly well.

Chapter 6
HUNGARIAN–ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL CONTRASTS: PRONOUNS AND ADVERBS

6.1 Pronouns

There are many contrasts between English and Hungarian pronouns. Some of these can be regarded as divergent phenomena (one to two or more correspondences), such as the use of *some* and *any*, *little* and *few*, *which* and *that*, etc. Most of these contrasts will have been dealt with in earlier stages of the language learning career of the prospective users of this book, and need not be discussed here. However, since errors in the use of some English pronouns showing the continued influence of L1 pronoun use sporadically occur even at the advanced and proficiency stage, the Tasks in 6.5 will present some translation exercises aimed at recapitulation and awareness raising. Students are invited to identify the L1–L2 contrasts that may influence the acquisition and correct use of English pronouns and discuss them on the basis of these exercises.

6.2 Adverbs and adverbials

One problem with adverbs that learners face is that some adjectives in English can be used as adverbs without the addition of a suffix:

Fiatalok voltunk.	– *We were young.*
Fiatalon házasodtunk össze.	– *We married young.*
Későn érkezett.	– *He arrived late.*
Beszélj hangosan.	– *Speak out loud.*

Again, we have the problem of one to two/many correspondence, i.e. divergence, a potential source of error.

Another problem is that Hungarian adverbs of manner often correspond to prepositional phrase postmodifiers in English:

Meglepetten néztek rám.	– *They looked at me in surprise.*
Nehezen beszélt.	– *He spoke with difficulty.*

6.3 Adverbial suffixes vs prepositional phrases

Most adverbials in Hungarian are realised through noun phrases with adverbial endings, corresponding to prepositional phrases in English. This formal difference in itself is not a formidable learning task, Hungarian learners seem to acquire this feature of English with ease.

The problem is that Hungarian adverbial endings (just like prepositions) are polysemous, and different meanings correspond to different prepositions in English. As a result, this is another contrast that works out as divergence. On top of that, transferability is high: learners will automatically transfer the different meanings of a Hungarian adverbial ending to the first-learned English preposition, i.e. its primary counterpart. The primary counterpart of the suffix *–val/vel*, e.g., is the preposition *with*, but it may also correspond to other prepositions, as shown by these examples:

Késsel-villával egyél.	*– Eat <u>with</u> a knife and a fork.*
A GDP 5%-kal nőtt.	*– GDP grew <u>by</u> 5%.*
A hajó teljes sebességgel haladt.	*– The ship sailed <u>at</u> full speed.*
A kocsma tele volt részegekkel.	*– The pub was full <u>of</u> drunk people.*

One type of contrasts is that in Hungarian the same adverbial ending may be used in both a spatial and a temporal meaning, which is not paralleled in English:

Innen egészen a Dunáig ellátni.	*– From here you can see as far as the Danube.*
Este nyolcig vártam rá.	*– I waited for her until 8 oclock.*
A fa alatt ültek.	*– They were sitting under the tree.*
Az előadás alatt beszélgettek.	*– They talked during the lecture.*

6.4 Adverbial clauses

In Hungarian, various types of clauses introduced by the subordinating conjunction *hogy* correspond to clauses in English introduced by *that*. The difference is that most Hungarian clauses are introduced by an *endorsing item* ('rámutató szó') with an adverbial ending in the main clause, and this will prompt learners to use a preposition before *that*, resulting in a grammatically ill-formed sentence: in English, a preposition can be followed by a noun phrase, a gerund, or a wh-clause, but not by a *that*-clause:

Ragaszkodom hozzá, hogy velem gyere.	**I insist on that you come with me.* *I insist that you (should) come with me.* *I insist on you/your coming with me.*
Értesítettem róla, hogy megjött a könyv.	**I informed him about that the book has come in.* *I informed him that the book has come in.* *I informed him about the **fact** that the book has come in.*

6.5 TASKS

1. Translate these sentences.

A.

Forró volt a nyár, ami szokatlan Angliában. Mindent hallottam, ami érdekelt. Érdeklődéssel hallgatta, amit meséltem neki. A szám újra foglalt volt, ami nagyon bosszantott. A repülőgép egy órát késett, ami meglepő volt. Ez minden, amit hoztam neked. Azt mondja sokat tanul, ami nem igaz. Hallottad, amit mondtam. Az, hogy még nem kaptál üdvözlő lapot a Marsról, nem jelenti azt, hogy nincs rajta élet. Aki nem látta, el sem hiszi majd. Aki tudja, csinálja; aki nem tudja, tanít.

B.

A legtöbb férfi önző. A legtöbb diák lusta. A legtöbb állatnak jó a hallása. A legtöbb férfi, aki ismerte Mary-t, szerelmes volt belé. A legtöbb nő, aki az irodában dolgozott, kedvelte az öreg Brownt. A legtöbb diák, aki olvasta a könyvet, eljött a megbeszélésre. Ebben az állatkertben a legtöbb állat hozzászokott a látogatókhoz. A legtöbb szorgalmas ember tisztességesen megél.

C.

Minden tanár tudja, hogy a gyerekek csak 20 percig tudnak figyelni. Minden tanár tudta, hogy Mary az iskola legjobb tanulója. Egyes tanárok nem figyelnek mindig a gyerekekre. Egyes tanárok nem figyeltek az igazgató beszédjére. Minden olasz szereti a zenét. A legtöbb olasz szereti a zenét. Egyes olaszok szeretik a zenét. Ebben az osztályban minden gyerek szereti a zenét.

D.

Egyeseknek milyen szerencséje van! Egyesek szeretik a macskákat, mások nem. Van, aki ki nem állhatja a macskákat. Van, aki lelkesedik a dzsesszért, van, aki nem.

A fiúk egyrésze szerette a matematikát, másrésze nem. A dolgozatok nagyrésze kitűnő volt. Amit mondott, annak egyrésze nem volt új. A problémák nagyrésze könnyen megoldható. A gyerekek nagyrésze nem tudta, mit akar. A gyakorlatok egyrésze nem ért semmit. A beszéd nagyrészét megértettem.

E.

Nem is olyan régen még kedveltem a magyar futballt. Utálom az olyan férfiakat, akik medált viselnek a nyakukban. A lóhús majdnem olyan drága, mint a marhahús. Van olyan gyerek, aki nem szereti a spenótot. Olyan vagyok, mint egy kifacsart citrom. Nem használok olyan szavakat, amelyeket nem ismerek. Van néhány olyan agrártermékünk, amely versenyképes az EU piacain is. Számomra különösen fontos, hogy olyan munkám legyen, amely mellett marad időm a kertészkedésre. Ne izgasd magad, ez nem olyan fontos.

F.

Szombaton újabb szélvihar söpört végig a városon. Vettem még egy angol nyelvtankönyvet. Ez újabb csapás a költségvetésünkre. Még egy megjegyzést szeretnék tenni. Ismételten figyelmeztetett bennünket. Még egy napot kellett várnia.

G.

Erről a témáról több cikk jelent meg a sajtóban. Idén több utcai baleset volt, mint tavaly. Több hajó is volt a Titanic közelében, de nem vették észre. Tíz fontot ajánlottam neki, de többet kér. A katasztrófának több oka is volt. Egy jó szakmunkás több fizetést kap, mint egy mérnök. Eggyel több pohár volt az asztalon. Jövőre még több baleset várható.

H.

Anyone who takes a day off sick when they are not ill is a criminal because they are stealing time, says Australian criminologist Dennis Challenger.
When you meet someone at a party, you want to know their names before jumping into bed with them.

I.

Mindenki vegye fel a kabátját. Valaki ottfelejtette a sapkáját a padon. Mindenki hazament a családjához.

2. Correct these sentences.

The most people went home. Peter drank the most of wine. Who laughs last laughs best. There will be rain in more parts of the country. I want such a wife who can cook well.

3. Identify the reference of the pronoun *it* in the following passage. Check the translation of the pronoun using *DeepL Translate*.

*Chlorophyl is the most important substance in the world for **it** can bring about four absolutely indispensable changes without which human and animal life would be impossible. **It** removes from the atmosphere the poisonous carbon dioxide poured into **it** by combustion. **It** causes the carbon dioxide to react with water, producing sugar, starch and fats. **It** further causes some of the carbon compounds **it** has made to react with another poisonous waste product, ammonia, forming protein, and **it** draws the energy from sunlight.*

4. Translate.

Jó barátként váltunk el. Fáradtan jött haza. Williams könnyen nyerte a mérkőzést. Dühösen elrohant. Keményen megütötte ellenfelét. Beszélj hangosan. Járj lassan. Beszélj halkan és hordj magadnál egy nagy botot.[43] *Barátságosan biccentett. Kedvesen mosolygott. Fiatalon halt meg. Gyorsan hajtott. Rekedten felnevetett. Barátságosan vállon veregetett. Furcsa módon tetszik nekem. Ideális esetben egy kosárlabdás két méter húsz fölött van. Nehezen értett meg. Szívesen meginnám.*

5. Cross out the phrases that cannot follow the preposition.

Now everything depends on	*the weather.*
	to surprise the enemy.
	that we can surprise the enemy.
	the soldiers.
	how the soldiers will fight.
Jill did not object to	*that Jack held her hand.*
	what Jack had said to her.
	Jack's proposal.
	Jack holding her hand.

6. Join the pairs of phrases below to make sentences:

I am surprised at / you bought a Japanese car; we decided on / go down to the river; I informed him about / his uncle had arrived; he insisted on / I lay down my burden by the riverside; Jill was afraid of / Jack will go up the hill alone to fetch a pail of water; all girls are aware of / it is dangerous to walk in the spooky old woods alone; Alice was sorry about / she had mentioned her cat to the mouse; The Queen of Hearts was sure of / Alice was guilty.

[43] Big stick ideology, big stick diplomacy, or big stick policy refers to President Theodore Roosevelt's foreign policy: "speak softly and carry a big stick; you will go far." (Wikipedia)

7. Correct.
**He spoke about that had been involved in an accident.*
**Alice complained about that she didn't know who she was.*
**Robinson at last resigned himself to that he was alone on the island.*
**I condemned him for that he used dirty tricks to win the race.*

8. Translate.
előtt
Az iskola előtt várlak. A mozi előtt találkozunk.

esetén/esetében
Tűz esetén használja a vészkijáratot.
Fiatal gyerekek esetében gyors felgyógyulás várható.

közben
Miközben gépeltem a levelet, észrevettem egy hibát.
A verekedés közben leesett a szemüvege.
Szaladgálás közben eltűnt a szemük elől. Futás közben nehéz beszélgetni.
Evés közben nem szoktunk beszélni.

között
Ilyen körülmények között nem tudok koncentrálni.

-nál/nél
Nagyapám a Tungsramnál dolgozott.
A metró építésénél figyelembe vettek minden korábbi tapasztalatot.
Nálunk ez a drog még kevéssé terjedt el.

-on/en/ön
Egy madár ül a fán.
Este későn faluvégen jártam, Három csillagot az égen láttam.
Ez az eszköz alacsony hőmérsékleten nem működik.
1975-ös árakon ezért az összegért 10 pár cipőt vehetnél.
Embereken még nem próbálták ki az új gyógyszert.

szerint
A magyar törvények szerint az autóvezető nem fogyaszthat alkoholt.

-val/vel
*Óránként 120 kilométeres sebesség**gel** hajtott. Az elemzéseket számítógépes program**mal** végeztük. Ez katasztrófá**val** egyenlő. Horgászás**sal** töltöttem az időt. A rendőrség a hadsereg támogatásá**val** szétoszlatta a tüntetést. Autó**val***

*járok munkába. Nagy sebesség***gel** *belerohant egy parkoló teherautóba. Találkoztál már vele? Nem tudom, mi történt velem. Az életkor előrehaladtá***val** *egyre engedékenyebb lett. Vasárnap a barátom***mal** *moziba mentünk. Ezt a terítőt kéz***zel** *hímezték. Gyilkosság***gal** *vádolják. Az adózás megkerülésé***vel** *hatalmas vagyonra tett szert. Ez európai mércé***vel** *is kiemelkedő teljesítmény. A titkárnőjé***vel** *üzent, hogy ma nem ér rá. Kutyák***kal** *etette fel az ételmaradékot. Barátnőm***mel** *döbbenten néztünk a fiatalemberre. Elsejé***vel** *kilépek innen. Ez alkalom***mal** *nem volt semmi probléma. Három alkalom***mal** *is megbukott a vizsgán. A helyzet valamivel jobb, tíz év***vel** *ezelőtt. A hazai sörfogyasztás 5,7 százalék***kal** *nőtt. A bátyám két év***vel** *idősebb nálam. Közölték* ***velünk*** *a döntést. A kocsma ott van a bolt***tal** *szemben. Nem tudok élni ezzel az ajánlat***tal***. Ezek a baktériumok ellenállóak a meglévő gyógyszerek***kel** *szemben. A jegyszedő rendkívül agresszívan kiabált egy fiú***val***. Nemcsak kenyér***rel** *él az ember. Ez az autó gázzal működik. A rokkát kézi erő***vel** *hajtották. Tele van a szoba szúnyogokkal. Pezsgő***vel** *töltötte meg a poharakat. Ennek a könyvnek az elolvasásá***val** *jobb ember lettem. A munka végezté***vel** *megittak egy sört. Nyugtá***val** *dicsérd a napot. A ceremónia végezté***vel** *a herceg és barátnője külön-külön távozott. Tucatjá***val** *akad ilyen ember. Vödör***rel** *itta a sört. Hoztunk tömjént (frankincense) vasfazék***kal***. Aki megdob kő***vel***, dobd vissza kenyér***rel***. Öröm***mel** *segítettem neki. Nagy sietség***gel** *írt egy levelet. Légipostá***val** *küldte a levelet. Tintá***val** *írtam alá a nevemet. Ceruzá***val** *írta a levelet. Saját kezé***vel** *írta a levelet. Tágra meresztett szem***mel** *nézett rám. Keresztbevetett lábak***kal** *ült előttem. Fej***jel** *lefelé lógott. Péter lábtörés***sel** *kórházban van. Feküdtem az ágyban, nyitott szem***mel***, és gondolkodtam. Ez a betegség közvetlen kapcsolatban áll az alkoholfogyasztás***sal***. A betegek egy részének állapota szorosan összefügg az évszakok változásá***val***. Ezt a betegséget jó eredmény***nyel** *tudják gyógyítani. Hogy mennyi időt töltök sportolás***sal***? Az Oroszlán-nők általában élnek a kínálkozó lehetőségek***kel***. Ha nála erősebb élettárs***sal** *köt házasságot, ez számos konfliktus okozója lehet. A főállatorvos felhívás***sal** *fordult hétfőn a lakossághoz. Ezek a munkatársak az ügyfelek***kel** *foglalkoznak. Nem érdemes sertéstenyésztés***sel** *foglalkoznunk. Ebben a körzetben sok ember mezőgazdaság***gal** *foglalkozik. A munká***val** *való elégedettség nem feltétlenül jelenti azt, hogy valaki jobban is dolgozik.*

Chapter 7

HUNGARIAN–ENGLISH LEXICAL CONTRASTS

As described in Chapter 2, modern trends in second language acquisition research follow a multifactor approach, claiming that errors and learning difficulty are due to several interacting factors. These factors include some non-linguistic ones (e.g., learner variability, level of proficiency, order and method of learning and teaching) and some linguistic ones, such as universal principles of acquisition, inherent difficulty and L1 influence due to L1/L2 contrasts.

In the case of vocabulary acquisition inherent difficulties may be traced back to such features as cognitive complexity of the concept denoted by a lexical item, part of speech, regularity of suffixes and inflections, morphological transparency, concreteness, pronounceability, word length, register and idiomaticity/transparency. The influence of L1 may affect various aspects of word knowledge and may be manifested in positive and negative transfer, avoidance, willingness to use or avoid L1-based strategies, ease or difficulty of learning and recall under stressful conditions.

This chapter will focus on lexical contrasts between L1 Hungarian and L2 English and the influence of these contrasts on the acquisition of various aspects of lexical knowledge by Hungarian learners of English. Before identifying the contrasts, however, it is necessary to look at the units that can be compared and the bases of the comparisons.

7.1 WORDS

The units stored in and retrieved from the mental lexicon (ML) include single and compound words, idioms and other multiword units. Words and idioms (including phrasal verbs) are often referred to as lexical units or *lexical items*, defined as "a word or several words that have a meaning that is not expressed by any of its separate parts"[44]. In this chapter we shall use the term *word* to refer to single and compound words, *lexical item* to refer to words, idioms and phrasal verbs, and *multiword unit* to refer to idioms, phrasal verbs, collocations, sayings, proverbs and so on. Multiword units may also be referred to as *phraseological units.* As seen from the above, idioms and phrasal verbs are

[44] https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/lexical-unit. Last accessed 02.12.2020.

usually regarded as lexical units and multiword units at the same time. In this section we shall look at contrasts between L1 and L2 words.

7.2 Aspects of word knowledge

Words are composites of form and meaning. Knowing a word means knowing both its form and meaning. More precisely, knowing a word means that we know:

- its form: its pronunciation, its spelling, its inflected forms, its morphological and syntactic properties;
- its meaning: its denotative (referential) meaning(s) and its connotative (associative, stylistic, register, collocational, emotive, etc.) meaning(s);
- its sense relations, i.e. its relations to other words.

It is these dimensions that will be used here to contrast Hungarian and English words.

7.2.1 Partial knowledge of a word

Even in our native language, we do not always have full knowledge of a word. We may be unaware of or uncertain about some of the aspects of word knowledge described above (pronunciation, morphology, meaning, etc.). Words may belong to our active or passive or temporarily activated vocabulary (Gósy 2005).

Consider, e.g., whether you know the meaning of the following Hungarian words and phrases:

> *mérföld, hüvelyk; rokka, motolla, csoroszlya; láttam már karón varjút, menj Isten hírével,* etc.

This is even more so in learning a foreign language. Learners acquire the various aspects of words gradually. The different levels of word knowledge can be studied by using the *Vocabulary Knowledge Scale* (VKS, Wesche and Paribakht 1993):

- I don't remember having seen this word before.
- I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
- I have seen this word before, and I think it means ________ (synonym or translation).
- I know this word. It means __________ (synonym or translation).
- I can use this word in a sentence. e.g.: ___________________ .

7.3 CONTRASTS IN WORD FORM

7.3.1 Pronunciation

We have discussed phonological and suprasegmental contrasts between English and Hungarian in Chapter 3, noting that a good English pronunciation is partly a matter of lexical knowledge: we have to know how a particular word is pronounced. Here we shall look at the pronunciation of certain types of words.

Some English words and proper names are known and used in Hungarian, too, with a naturalised pronunciation. This Hungarian pronunciation may influence learners even when they are speaking English: they may pronounce *doctor* (ˈdɒk.təʳ) like Hungarian *doktor* or names like *London* (ˈlʌn.dən) or Los Angeles (ˌlɒs ˈæn.dʒə.liːz, ˌlɑːs ˈæn.dʒə.ləs) as naturalised Hungarian words. Hungarian pronunciation may influence learners especially strongly in the case of *cognates*, i.e. words of common origin with similar meanings.

Scientific words of Latin or Greek origin represent by far the largest groups among cognates. Consider the pronunciation of these words:

- *photosynthesis*
- *diameter*
- *economic*
- *academy*
- *sado-masochistic*

Unknown words and proper names will be pronounced by most learners according to spelling. Here the influence of the mother tongue is indirect: not knowing the place of stress and the actual pronunciation, learners will try to apply a Hungarian spelling pronunciation. Consider, how you would pronounce these relatively less frequent names:

- *Durham*
- *Gloucester*
- *Portsmouth*
- *Bournemouth*
- *Derbyshire*
- *Salford*
- *Moses*
- *Jeremiah*
- *Nehemiah*

7.4 Contrasts in word meaning

Consider this example: What does the word *tót* mean? Is its meaning different from *szlovák?* How do you translate *tót* and *szlovák* into English?

Word meaning includes *denotative* and *connotative* (associative) meaning. In addition, word meaning is also dependent on the *sense relations* between words and the *habitual collocations* with other words.

7.4.1 Denotative meaning

Denotative meaning (also known as referential meaning) is the reference of a word to the real world. The denotative meaning of *snow* is, according to the Merriam-Webster dictionary, "precipitation in the form of small white ice crystals formed directly from the water vapor of the air at a temperature of less than 32°F (0°C)".

Equivalence. The words of different languages segment reality in different ways. As a result, words in different languages will have different denotative meanings. *Full equivalence is rare***.** It is mainly found in scientific terms, which refer to concepts that are the same across different languages and have precise definitions, e.g., *gravitation – nehézségi erő/gravitáció*. Even though their associative meanings (based on sound or the meanings of the constituents) may be different in different languages, such meanings are irrelevant in a scientific text.

Many words exhibit what is called *working equivalence* (Snell-Hornby 1988/1995), i.e., in most cases they are denotationally equivalent to a particular word of another language. Most *dictionary equivalences* are of this type.

In the case of working equivalence,

- there is in language *B* a lexical item whose referential meaning seems to be identical with a corresponding language *A* lexical item (has the same definition);
- in translation, the language *A* lexical item regularly corresponds to the same language *B* lexical item;
- bilingual speakers, when asked to recall the equivalent of a language *A* lexical item, will uniformly recall the same language *B* lexical item, irrespective of the context.

Examples of working equivalence are *apple – alma, goat – kecske, sand – homok, mobile phone – mobil telefon, January – január, aggressive – agresszív, surf – szörf.* It is mostly names of objects and international words that belong in this category. This type of equivalence is not absolute: there may be contexts or uses of the word where equivalence breaks down, e.g., *January* in Australia ("down under") is different from *January* in Hungary.

Working equivalence is more often found between European languages than between European and Oriental languages. According to Wong (2007), the word *aggressive* which has working equivalents in most (or all) European languages, has no proper equivalent in Chinese.

In some areas the words of language *A* may seem to be in a relationship of working equivalence with the words of language *B*, yet on closer inspection it appears that there is no equivalence, since the system of words is so different. Thus, e.g., it is practically impossible to maintain the distinction between Hungarian *főiskolai* and *egyetemi tanársegéd (adjunktus, docens, tanár*) in English.

The denotative meanings of L1 and L2 words that usually function as dictionary equivalents may also be different, i.e., *the boundaries of denotative meaning may not coincide*. E.g., the English word *animal,* e.g., in popular usage, does not include *fish, birds* or *insects*. *Chickens,* for example, would not be referred to as *animals*, but as *birds*. The word *cup* usually corresponds to *csésze*, but *paper cup* corresponds to *papírpohár*. The word *friend* is the dictionary equivalent of Hungarian *barát*, yet the boundaries of the underlying concepts are different: *friend* may refer to people that in Hungarian would be classed as *ismerős* or *-társ*:

Ez ki? – Egyik osztálytársam.
Who is s/he? – A friend from school.

A large number of words exhibit *partial equivalence*, mainly because the words of one language segment reality in a different way from the words of another. Typically, there are one to many and many to one correspondences between any two languages, e.g. *hare/rabbit – nyúl; morning – hajnal, reggel, délelőtt; cheese – sajt, túró; casual – alkalmi, lezser; dismiss – elhesseget elbocsát, nem vesz róla tudomást; knuckle – ujjperec, ujjízület,* etc. An example of partial equivalence is shown in Table 8.

Table 8. *Different segmentation of reality*

Hungarian	**English**	**German**
fa	*tree*	*Baum*
fa	*wood*	*Holz*
erdő	*wood; forest*	*Wald*

Lexical voids. Some L2 words and phrases do not have equivalents in L1 and vice versa. These non-equivalences may be accidental or may be due to cultural differences. In the case of lexical voids, the concept exists in both

languages, but it is only L2 that has a lexical item for it. E.g., English *knuckle* denotes a part of the hand that has no single-word expression in Hungarian. According to several bilingual dictionaries, *knuckle* means

csukló, ujjperc, ujjperec, ujjizület, kézbütyök, tengelycsukló, lábszárhús csonttal

The word *knuckle* actually corresponds best to *kézbütyök*, but this word is rarely used in Hungarian. If you translate the following sentence into Hungarian, it is unlikely that your translation will contain the word *kézbütyök*:

Give me 60 pushups on your knuckles.[45]

Culturally important concepts are, or at least tend to be lexicalised in a language. *Ezüstvasárnap* is culturally important in Hungary, so it is lexicalised in Hungarian. In Britain it is less important and is not lexicalised in English. The phrase *Silver Sunday* has a different meaning ('the National Day for Older People').

Let us now examine some of the words in the article *Britain's Medallion Men Win No Medals* (Chapter 5) that might have caused difficulty in translation. This text contains several words and phrases that have no exact equivalents in Hungarian, and can only be expressed through two or more words, or paraphrases, or with some loss of meaning: *pet hate, bigot, wishy-washy, flamboyant.*

Pet hate. The compound *pet hate* is defined as "a minor annoyance that a person identifies as particularly annoying to them, to a greater degree than it may be to others, e.g.: *Smoking is my pet hate".*[46] The phrase can be explained and translated into Hungarian but lacks a good Hungarian equivalent.

Bigot. The word *bigot* has an equivalent in Hungarian: *bigott*. In bilingual dictionaries it is translated as *vakbuzgó követő (pártéé/világnézeté); fanatikus, szenteskedő/ kegyeskedő; vakbuzgó személy (vallási életben), bigott.* In a monolingual dictionary the definition of this word is a person who is intolerant of any ideas other than his or her own, esp. on religion, politics, or race.[47] However, in Hungarian it refers only to people who are fanatically religious; for those who are politically or racially bigoted we must have a different translation. (See also section 7.5.4 on *False Cognates*.) Therefore, we may say that it has no precise equivalent in Hungarian.

[45] https://hu.glosbe.com/en/hu/knuckle: *Hatvan fekvőtámasz öklön!* Accessed 20.11.2020; DeepL Translator *Adj 60 fekvőtámaszt a bokádon! Accessed 15.01.2022.

[46] https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/pet-hate. Last accessed 20.11.2020.

[47] https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/bigot. Last accessed 20.11.2020.

Flamboyant. As for *flamboyant*, we find several different meanings listed in English-Hungarian bilingual dictionaries: *láng(nyelv)szerű; késői gót; színpompás; lobogó; túldíszített; rikító; hivalkodó.* In a monolingual dictionary[48], it is defined as 'very noticeable, stylish, and exciting, as in *Freddie Mercury was a flamboyant star of the British hard rock scene.'* It can be translated into Hungarian in several different ways, but lacks a good, exact equivalent. (Perhaps the word *extravagáns* comes closest to it.)

Wishy-washy. Again, the word *wishy-washy* has several equivalents in bilingual dictionaries (*fakó, híg, ízetlen, se íze se bűze, színtelen, teddide-teddoda, tutyi-mutyi, érdektelen, lapos, semmitmondó*), but none of them expresses its exact meaning, which is defined in this way: *If you say that someone is wishy-washy, you are critical of them because their ideas are not firm or clear.* E.g., *If there's anything I can't stand, it's an indecisive, wishy-washy customer.*[49]

Culture-specific words. Word meaning is inseparable from encyclopaedic knowledge (world knowledge, including cultural and subject matter knowledge). Thus, the word *breakfast* denotes a meal eaten in the morning, but speakers of English will also know what this meal typically consists of and quite a lot of other things.

There is a large group of words that denote entities specific to a particular culture and as a result have no equivalents in other languages. For instance, there is no English word for Hungarian *disznótor* and *disznótoros*, *kuruc, kurucos, labanc,* and there is no Hungarian word for the event called *Trooping the Colour.* Here are some more examples of culture-specific words:

- *pub, Yorkshire pudding, ale, stout, backbencher, party whips, Downing Street, The Speaker, public school, comprehensive school, grammar school;*
- *babgulyás, pálinka, Alföld, gémeskút, fokos, einstand, gittegylet, grund, krajcár, magyar nóta, Mohácsi vész*

It is important to note that if there is no word in a language for a word of another language, it does not mean that it cannot be expressed. In this case various communication and translation strategies can be employed: borrowing (e.g., *dartsozás*), explaining (*kurucok: anti-Habsburg insurgents in 18th century Hungary*), literal translation (*Trooping the Colour: zászlós díszszemle*[50]), etc. (See Chapter 11.)

[48] https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/flamboyant. Last accessed 20.11.2020.

[49] https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/wishy-washy. Accessed 20.11.2020.

[50] "A *Trooping the Colour* ceremóniája II. Károly király idejéig – vagyis a XVII. századig – nyúlik vissza, és annak a régi katonai szokásnak az ünnepélyes felidézése, amellyel az egyes alakulatok zászlait és jelképeit, vagyis színeit (*colour*) rendszeresen végighordozták a katonák (*troops*) előtt. Ennek két oka volt: a fennköltebb az, hogy a katonák jobban átérezzék azon zászló fontosságát, mely az alakulat lelke, és amelyet a legnagyobb megbecsülés illet. Ezzel érhető el, hogy a csatában a zászlót kövessék, megóvásáért önmagukat feláldozzák." https://

From the vocabulary learning point of view, the difficulty of acquiring an item that has no equivalent in L2 may be variable: if the item has a clear referent, it may not be very difficult. If an item in L1 has no equivalents in L2, learners must find a strategy to express or explain it.

7.4.2 Connotative meaning

Connotative meaning is connected with the emotions and associations that a word evokes. It also includes sound-based associations like onomatopoeia (*cock-a-doodle-do*), meanings derived from motivation (*dragonfly, butterfly, windfall tax, greenback*), etimology (*bugger, de-bugging*), knowledge of frequency, stylistic value (formal vs. informal, loanword vs. indigenous word, neologism, archaism, slang etc.), register, language variety (standard or dialect etc.), meanings acquired from collocations (e.g., part of the meaning of *megrögzött* comes from the fact that it collocates with words like *hazudozó*).[51]

The denotative meaning of the word *pig*, according to the *Cambridge Dictionary of English*, is "a large pink, brown or black farm animal with short legs and a curved tail, kept for its meat". Its connotative (associative) meanings are related to the common view that pigs are filthy, eat greedily, etc.

Synonyms in a language may have the same denotative meaning, but may differ in their connotations. A case in point is Hungarian *tót* and *szlovák*. Both have the same denotative meaning, but the latter does not have the patronizing connotative meanings of *tót*. The denotative meaning of English *Slovak* corresponds to both Hungarian words, but there is no word in English corresponding to the connotations of *tót*. Contrasts of this type may cause difficulties in literary translation.

Equivalence of connotative meaning may be possible in some cases (*lions* and *tigers* probably have the same connotations in most languages), yet in general connotative equivalence is rather limited. A word may have a very good denotative equivalent in another language, yet its connotative meanings may be different. Russian *рябина* has a good (working) denotative equivalent in Hungarian *berkenyefa*, but the Russian word has associative meanings derived from the folk songs in which it frequently occurs, while *berkenyefa* does not carry the same connotations (*akácfa, jegenyefa* and *fűzfa* occur in Hungarian folk songs). The denotative meaning of English *foreign* is equivalent to Hungarian *külföldi*, but its connotations are different.

web.archive.org/web/20200306084405/ http://www.londonkalauz.hu/trooping-the-colour. Last accessed 14.12.2022.

[51] In corpus linguistics this is called *semantic prosody*, i.e., the attitudinal and evaluative meaning inferred from the habitual lexical environment of a word in a corpus.

Culture-specific objects or concepts carry more connotative (associative) meanings than other words. These meanings may be context-independent: the associations for *szaloncukor* in a free association test[52] were *narancs, fények, meleg, ajándék, tél, betlehem, finom, fenyőillat* (mostly related to Christmas), signalling the positive emotive associations related to Christmas. Consider also the associative meanings of words like *gémeskút, Mohács, gulyásleves, jegenyefa, keszeg, ávós, betyár, zsandár, barackpálinka, kuruc, szűr, etc.*

7.4.3 Register

Words may have different connotations and stylistic values depending on the register they belong to. Being aware of the stylistic differences of words related to register is important in foreign language learning, especially at advanced and proficiency level. Beginner to intermediate learners tend to disregard register specificity and degree of formality. As a result, mixing of registers often occurs in L2 writing and L1–L2 translation. E.g., the Hungarian word *abbahagyni* corresponds to English *abandon, desist* and *give up,* but the latter is typical of the conversational register and is avoided in written styles. In a similar way, use of the verb *get* is typical of the conversational register, but is hardly ever used in scientific registers. In Agatha Christie's novels Poirot regularly uses the phrase *I comprehend* (cf. French *je comprends*). This is a covert error: it is grammatically correct and can be understood easily, yet situationally it is usually inappropriate: the usual phrase in informal conversation is *I see.*

7.5 Sense relations

A large part of the meaning of a word comes from its sense relations, i.e., its relation to other words in the vocabulary of a language. Sense relations include synonymy, hyponymy, antonymy, meronymy, homonymy and polysemy.

7.5.1 Synonymy

Synonymy is defined as similarity of meaning (usually denotative meaning). True synonymy would mean complete identity of all the various kinds of meanings of two words, but this is rare. As a result, synonyms are interchangeable in some, but not all, contexts. Synonyms may belong to different geographical varieties: British English *petrol* is *gas* in American English. Within the same

[52] This was an informal classroom test conducted by the author with third-year undergraduate students at the University of Pannonia in 2008.

language variety, synonymous words may differ in connotative meanings and/or stylistic value. In British English the words *tube* and *underground* (*subway* in the US) have the same denotative meaning, but their connotations are different.

There are usually many interlingual differences between L1 and L2 words regarding the number of synonyms and the subtle differences between their denotative and connotative meanings. Problems for learners arise when there is only one word in L1 but two synonymous words in L2, and they have to make a choice every time they use the word where there is no choice in their native language. For example, Hungarian *állandó* corresponds to English *constant* and *permanent, anyag* corresponds to *material, matter* and *substance, lehetőség* corresponds to English *possibility* and *opportunity* – the list is endless. In such cases the contrast works out as divergence, causing serious learning difficulty.

Another potential problem is that sometimes hyponyms (see the next section) are perceived by learners as synonyms: based on their L1 correspondents, learners may think that *ape* and *monkey*, *rabbit* and *hare*, or *roast* and *bake* are synonymous and may use these words indiscriminately.

Learners are also influenced by the phenomenon that Arabski (1979) called *primary counterpart.* This means that learners tend to use (and overuse) the first-learned word of a pair of synonyms, overgeneralising its meaning and underusing the synonyms that are learnt later. The order of learning, as noted in Chapter 2, is an important influencing factor. This effect may be reinforced by *divergent conditions*, when one L1 word corresponds to two or more in L2. If there is no specific word in L1, or a more general word is preferred, transfer from L1 may play a role.

Primary counterparts will tend to be correspondents of general words in L1. In this, the learner's level of proficiency may also play a role: s/he simply may not know more specific words. Another interacting factor is a general principle of acquisition: in child language acquisition, first-learned words tend to be general, and L2 learners also prefer words with a general meaning, and will tend to overgeneralise these words, ignoring differences in register and collocation. A further factor may be lack of motivation: if the learner has learnt the primary counterpart, s/he may feel that it is unnecessary to learn further synonyms.

A case in point is the English synonyms *possibility* and *opportunity.* It is *possibility* that learners tend to acquire first, and this soon becomes the primary counterpart, extended to situations where *opportunity* would be appropriate. This tendency is reinforced by the fact that Hungarian *lehetőség* is often used in the sense *alkalom.* In this way, order of learning and L1–L2 contrast account for the (observed) fact that Hungarian learners tend to use *possibility* everywhere where they would use *lehetőség in* Hungarian, even though they know both words.

These examples provide evidence for the claim that several factors may influence learning difficulty and error: in these cases, L1–L2 contrasts and order of learning lead to the development of a primary counterpart. Since *lehetőség* in Hungarian may have two meanings, corresponding to two different words in English, and the same goes for *megtudni,* what we have to do with here is divergence, the most difficult type of contrast, with learning difficulty enhanced by the order of learning.

Learners also tend to prefer literal correspondents. The Hungarian construction *Lehet, hogy …* literally corresponds to English *It is possible that …*, or *It can happen that …* – phrases that Hungarian learners tend to use exclusively, neglecting the use of the auxiliaries *may/might.* In a similar way, the phasal verb *find out* resembles Hungarian *megtudni* in that it consists of two morphemes, and it tends to become the primary counterpart for the latter, used by Hungarian learners to the exclusion of simple *find* and *learn.*

Often synonyms exist in both languages, but their meanings or areas of use do not fully coincide, and there are criss-cross correspondences between their meanings. Hungarian *metró* is used for all underground lines, while *földalatti* refers to the *Millenium Underground in Budapest*, yet the two words are often used interchangeably. In Britain the word *underground* (e.g., *The London Underground*) is often replaced by the word *tube* (see above) while in the US the word *subway* is used.

Sometimes the exact difference in the meanings of synonyms is difficult to pin down. Componential analysis may sometimes help to discover meaning differences (see Rudzka et al 1981, 1985).

7.5.2 Hyponymy

The lexical system of a language consists of many small or large hierarchically organised structures: there is a *superordinate word* and various subordinate words, called *hyponyms*. These structures practically segment reality in ways specific to a given language. The hierarchies usually have three or four levels, but scientific classifications may be much more elaborate.

Hyponomy is the *kind-of* relation: a *mouse* is a kind of r*odent*, a *rodent* is a kind of *animal;* a *pine* is a kind of *tree*, a *tree* is a kind of *plant*. Words on the same level sharing the same superordinate term are called *co-hyponyms*. The words *beef, pork, mutton, venison, duck* etc. are co-hyponyms of the superordinate word *meat.*

There are many different interlingual differences in such hierarchical structures. The number of words at different levels of the hierarchy may be different in different languages. Some differences in hyponymic relations between English and Hungarian will be shown below.

7.5.2.1 Lack of superordinate term and a higher number of hyponyms in English

In general, English tends to offer a more detailed segmentation of the world than Hungarian: it tends to have a higher number of hyponyms (i.e., basic level words in English are sometimes at a slightly lower level than in Hungarian), while there may be no superordinate word, or one of the hyponyms may also be used as a superordinate (Heltai 1990).

Table 9. *No definite superordinate term in English – more hyponyms*

óra	*clock*	*watch*	
nyúl	*rabbit*	*hare*	
béka	*frog*	*toad*	
tengely	*axis*	*axle*	*shaft*
csiga	*snail*	*slug*	
lepke	*butterfly*	*moth*	
motor	*engine*	*motor*	
párna	*pillow*	*cushion*	
ujj	*finger*	*toe*	
hús	*meat*	*flesh*	
fajta	*breed*	*variety*	*race*

Such differences work out as one-to-two or one-to-many differences, i.e., divergent phenomena, often leading to error or difficulty of learning. The words *rabbit* and *hare*, e.g, may be regarded as synonymous (see Chapter 6.5.1) and used indiscriminately by learners, or *rabbit* may be used as the primary counterpart of *nyúl*.

Table 10. *No definite superordinate term in English – different hierarchical organisation*

Ø				*állat*			
animal	*fish*	*bird*	*insect*	*emlős*	*hal*	*madár*	*rovar*

Table 11. *Different hierarchical organisation – co-hyponyms in English, superordinate and hyponym in Hungarian*

table	*desk*	*asztal*
		íróasztal

monkey	*ape*	*majom*
		emberszabású majom

Table 12. *Preference in English for single-word hyponyms, preference in Hungarian for compounds*

MEAT			*HÚS*			
beef *veal*	*mutton*	*pork*	*marha-* *hús*	*borjú-* *hús*	*birka-* *hús*	*sertés-* *hús*

KIND			*FAJTA*		
race	*breed*	*variety*	*rassz*	*állatfajta*	*növény-fajta*

Most of these differences will work out as one-to-two/many correspondences (divergence), contributing to learning difficulty or interference. In some cases, L1 interference results in fossilisation of the error (*asztal – *table,* instead of *desk*).

7.5.2.1 Convergent meanings

Sometimes we have the opposite case, with two or more L1 words corresponding to one L2 word. A well-known example is *túró* and *sajt*, which usually correspond to *cheese.* Convergence may cause misunderstanding both in speech and in translating: Hungarians may want to distinguish between *túró* and *sajt* where unnecessary, since the context will disambiguate the word *cheese*, or may be misled in translating from English and will translate *cheese* as *sajt* in a context where it means *túró.* Consider this sentence:

> *In Slovakia, look for bryndzové halusky, a tasty Slovak noodle dish with sheep's <u>cheese</u>.*
> *Szlovákiában keresse a bryndzové halusky*-t, *azaz a juh<u>túrós</u> galuskát.*

7.5.2.1 Motivation

Word meaning can be unmotivated or motivated. Meaning may be motivated by onomatopoeia /ˌɒnə(ʊ)mætəˈpiːə/, e.g., *cock-a-doodle-do*, by derivation (*teach – teacher*) or compounding (*bellflower*). In general, English has a higher number of unmotivated lexical items than Hungarian. Hungarian uses mainly morphological motivation (derivation and compounding) while English tends to use word combination (collocation) which is often elliptic and tends to afford a greater role to semantic (metaphorical) motivation. Differences in hierarchical structure are often linked to differences in motivation: unmotivated lexical items tend to be perceived as basic-level (specific) items, while motivated items tend to be perceived as subspecific or generic items.

7.5.3 Meronymy

Meronymy is the part-whole relationship: *morning, afternoon* and *night* are parts of the day, and *toes* are part of the *foot*, which is part of the *leg,* with the latter being part of the *body*. Cross-linguistic differences appear in meronymic relations, too. Thus, in Hungarian *reggel* and *délelőtt* are distinguished as parts of the day, while English *morning* comprises both. It should be noted that this is a case of convergence (two L1 items corresponding to just one in L2), which was classed as 'easy' by classical contrastive linguistics. In spite of this, it often confuses Hungarians, who tend to insist on distinguishing between *reggel* and *délelőtt* in English.

7.5.4 Polysemy

Polysemy is not related to links between different words: it is a relationship between the meanings of the same word. Polysemy is pervasive in language, with the exception of scientific terms.

Polysemy usually works out as one-to-two or one-to-many correspondence, i.e., divergence. Therefore, it tends to be No. 1 problem in vocabulary acquisition and use by foreign learners.

Zenét hallgattunk.	– *We listened to music.*
Mindketten hallgattunk.	– *We were silent. (*Both of us listened.)*

Meanings close to the central meaning of a word tend to be highly transferable because it is an unmarked feature. We do not often notice polysemy in our native language, since polysemous words are usually disambiguated by context. Deceptive transferability often leads to interference errors. A large proportion of lexical errors is due to polysemy, both in oral communication and writing, as well as in translation. The following example is a bilingual notice in a botanical garden:

A növényágy felújítás alatt van. Kérjük ne lépjen be.
*The plant bed is under renovation. Please do not *log in.*

Polysemy is closely linked with collocations: in different collocations a word will have different meanings, as shown by the examples below. Consequently, one way to eliminate interference is to learn collocations instead of words.

nedves út	– *wet road*
nedves talaj	– *(on surface) wet soil; (containing moisture/water) moist soil*
nedves levegő	– *humid air*
ajándékot kap	– *get a present*

influenzát kap	*– catch the flu*
fejéhez kap	*– clutch one's head*
erőre kap	*– regain one's strength*
szárnyra kap	*– take wing*
két kézzel kap rajta	*– jump at the chance*
lóra kap	*– leap into saddle*
vérszemet kap	*– become/grow bold/dauntless*
hazugságon kap	*– catch sy telling lies*
görcsöt kap	*– be seized with a cramp*
hülyét kap (tőle)	*– it drives him/her mad/crazy*

Polysemy is also typical of suffixes. The suffix *-er* may denote a person (*farmer, teacher*), a machine (*toaster, freezer*) and various other things (*ice-breaker, skyscraper, mind-boggler*, etc.). A *milker* can be a person (*fejő*), a machine (*fejőgép*) and a milking cow (*a good milker*).

In Hungarian, the suffix *-ás/és* is polysemous. The word *fordítás* may refer to the process or to the product. Both meanings may correspond to English *translation*, but in the process meaning *translating* occurs more often.

7.5.4.1 Polysemy and motivation

As described above, Hungarian has a preference for morphological motivation, while English tends to use semantic motivation. The outcome of this contrast is that English words may acquire new meanings without any formal change, while Hungarian tends to signal transferred meaning by affixes or compounding. Some types of this contrast will be described in this section.

7.5.4.2 Conversion

In English, the same word may be used both as a noun and a verb without change of form: *bus → to bus.* In Hungarian, suffixation or compounding is used: *busz, buszozik.* In principle, with Hungarian as L1, this feature of English should not be very difficult to get used to, since it is a convergent phenomenon.

7.5.4.3 Abstract concept – specific object

In English, words expressing abstract concepts can often be used to denote specific objects connected with the abstract concept, e.g. *control – ellenőriz, ellenőrzés → ellenőrző műszer.* There seems to be convergence in this case too (several Hungarian words corresponding to one English word), so the learning task is not particularly heavy, but the difference may sometimes lead to overtranslation (*ellenőrző műszer – *controlling instrument*).

7.5.4.4 Abbreviation of compounds and word combinations

In English, there is a tendency to abbreviate compounds and word combinations to a single element, especially when they occur repeatedly. The result is polysemy of the remaining element: *gnome* may mean *gnome* ("an ageless and often deformed dwarf of folklore who lives in the earth and usually guards treasure"; Merriam-Webster) or garden gnome ("lawn ornament figurines of small humanoid creatures"; Wikipedia). The phrase *remote control* is abbreviated to *remote.* The effect of this difference is similar to those described above.

In general, we may say that most of the differences between the lexical systems of English and Hungarian are to a large extent related to motivational differences. For example, in using words in a new meaning, Hungarian tends to add a suffix or create a compound, while English may continue to use the same word without any formal change. In other words, transfer of meaning in Hungarian receives overt marking much earlier than in English, which tends to use the same form with multiple meanings. Consider the examples in Table 13:

Table 13. *Transfer of meaning in English and Hungarian words*

Basic spatial sense		**Transferred sense**	
hosszú	*long*	*hosszadalmas*	*long, longish, lengthy*
széles	*wide*	*széleskörű*	*wide(spread)*
szűk	*narrow*	*szűkös*	*narrow; meagre, inadequate*
magas	*high*	*magasságos*	*high*
mély	*deep*	*mélységes*	*deep*
sekély	*shallow*	*sekélyes*	*shallow*
könnyű	*light*	*könnyelmű*	*light*

7.5.4.5 False cognates

There are many cognate words in English and Hungarian, i.e., words that are formally similar and have the same origin. If their meanings are the same, we may rely on positive transfer, and they will be easy to learn:

doktor – doctor, forma – form, motiváció – motivation, absztrakt – abstract etc.

False cognates are cognates whose meaning is different in L1 and L2, or which, in addition to the same meaning, have meanings not shared by both the L1 and the L2 word. Having the same form, they appear to be transferable, but in many cases they mislead learners. Table 14 contains a list of English–Hungarian and Hungarian–English false cognates.

Table 14. *English–Hungarian and Hungarian–English false cognates*

English word	**Meaning**	
	In both languages	**Only in English**
actual		*tényleges, tulajdonképpeni*
administration	*adminisztráció*	*kormányzat*
athlete, athletic	*atléta, atlétikus*	*sportoló, sportos*
billion		*milliárd (US)*
clerical	*klerikális*	*adminisztratív*
commercial	*kereskedelmi*	*polgári*
consequent		*vmiből következő*
conservative	*konzervatív*	*óvatos*
control	*kontroll, ellenőrzés*	*fegyelmezés, szabályozás*
critical	*kritikus*	*döntő*
discrete	*diszkrét*	*különálló*
figure	*figura*	*számadat; alak*
intelligence	*intelligencia*	*hírszerzés*
liberal	*liberális*	*bőséges*
minister	*miniszter*	*lelkész*
motorist		*autós*
novel		*regény*
partisan		*pártos, pártszerű*
pathetic	*patetikus*	*szánalmas*
positive	*pozitív*	*határozott, meghatározott*
professional	*professzionális*	*diplomás*
rector	*rektor*	*iskolaigazgató*
solid	*szolid, megbízható*	*szilárd (test)*
specific	*specifikus, meghatározott*	*konkrét*
sympathetic		*vkivel együttérző*
technique		*eljárás, módszer*
technological	*technológiai*	*technikai*

Hungarian word	**Cognate word**	**Non-cognate word**
adminisztratív	*administrative*	*clerical*
akkumulátor		*battery*
autós		*motorist*
bojler		*water heater*
diszkrét	*discrete*	*discreet*

Hungarian word	**Cognate word**	**Non-cognate word**
fizikus		*physicist*
gyakorlat	*practice*	*experience*
humánus		*humane*
intelligencia (osztály)	*intelligentsia*	*intellectuals, professional classes*
képzelet és valóság		*fact and fiction*
kombájn		*combine harvester*
kombinát		*combine*
konkrét	*concrete*	*specific*
konstrukció	*construction*	*design*
kontroll	*control*	*check*
konzekvens		*consistent*
konzerv		*GB tin, US can*
kritika	*critique*	*criticism*
miniszter	*minister*	*(GB, US) secretary*
modell (autó, gép)	*model*	*design*
műszaki	*technical*	*engineering*
novella		*short story*
orvos	*doctor*	*physician*
összkomfort		*all modern conveniences/ comforts*
partizán		*guerilla*
perspektíva	*perspective*	*[kilátás:] prospect*
propaganda	*propaganda*	*promotion*
prospektus		*brochure*
protekció		*connections*
reális	*real*	*realistic, reasonable*
recept		*recipe, prescription*
reklám		*advertisement, commercial, promotion*
rektor	*rector*	*vice-chancellor (GB), president (US)*
szimpatikus		*likeable*
technika		*technology*
technikai	*technical*	*technological*
ventilátor	*ventilator*	*fan*

7.6 Hunglish words

As a result of the contrasts described above, the English vocabulary of Hungarian learners may contain a number of typical Hunglish words, due to the effects of mother tongue interference. Some of these are described in Doughty and Thompson (1983), e.g., *excursion* (instead of *outing* or *trip*), *family house* (instead of *house*), *learn* (instead of *study*), *nature* (instead of *countryside* or *country*), etc. In many cases false cognates are responsible for the emergence of Hunglish words, e.g., *practice* (instead of *experience*), *novel* (instead of *short story*) or *perspective* (instead of *prospect*). (See the above list and also Varga and Lázár's *Hungarian–English dictionary* (Varga–Lázár 2000), which warns the user against false cognates. Consider this entry:

> aktuális 1. timely, topical, current ez már nem aktuális it's no longer relevant, it's out of date *NEM* ~~actual~~ 2. [igazi:] live (2000: 17)

A comprehensive list of Hungarian-English false cognates has been compiled by Lázár (1998).[53]

7.7 TASKS

1. Check the pronunciation of the states of the U.S.
Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming

2. Discuss: What are the differences between these synonymous words?
alkalom: *chance, opportunity, occasion*
állandó: *constant, permanent*
befejez: *finish, complete, conclude, end, be over*
elbocsát: *dismiss, fire, make redundant*
folytat: *continue, go on, carry on*
különböző: *different, various*
lakik: *live, stay, reside*
látszik, tűnik: *seem, look, appear*

[53] http://seas3.elte.hu/olddelg/people/core/lazar/falsefriends.html

magas: *high, tall, lofty*
meghatároz: *define, determine*
pontos: *precise, exact, punctual, accurate*
próbál, igyekszik, törekszik: *try, attempt, make effort, endeavour, strive*
ügy, dolog: *affair, business, concern, matter, thing*
vár: *expect, wait*
visszautasít, megtagad: *refuse, reject, decline, deny*
katasztrófa: *disaster, catastrophe, cataclysm*
erős: *strong, powerful*

3. translate.

He is 20 years my senior. A senior police officer led the investigation. There are terraced vineyards along the river. The terrace consisted of four houses. Don Antonio was sunbathing on the terrace. A fight broke out among fans on the terraces. A hölgy csinos nyári ruhát viselt. Le ne edd a ruhádat! Péter ezt a ruhát három éve vette. A gyermekruha osztályra mentek.

4. which of these nouns denotes a person, a device or something else? Which has several meanings? What translation methods can you use in translating some of them?

ice crusher, jailer, gas-guzzler, kisser, bluffer, looker, brain teaser, zipper, diner, thriller, bird feeder, tongue twister, shoplifter, tranquilliser, sinner, cliff-hanger, sleeper, eye popper, crawler, baby-boomer, backhander, pullover, header, do-gooder

5. translate.

Ezt komolyan gondolom. Komolyan fontolóra vettem a javaslatot. Komoly veszteségeket szenvedtünk el.

Elvetettük a krumplit. Elvetették az ötletet. Elvetette a gyereket. Elvetette magát a fiúval. Elvetette a sulykot. Elvetette a gerelyt.

6. Discuss: Can we translate these zeugmatic[54] sentences into Hungarian? Why (not)?

We took the door off its hinges and then walked through it.
Arthur and his driving licence expired last Thursday.
He took his degree and his leave.
You have broken your promise and my heart.
He let down the clutch and his friends.
He stood deep in thought and another round of drinks.

[54] Zeugma**:** the use of a word to modify or govern two or more words usually in such a manner that it applies to each in a different sense or makes sense with only one (as in "opened the door and her heart to the homeless boy"). https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/zeugma, accessed 08.03.2022.

7. Consult a Hungarian-English dictionary (preferably Varga–Lázár 2000) to find out the English equivalents or the English translations of the following Hungarian words. Which words are culture-specific?

áramlopás, önkényes lakásfoglaló, megélhetési bűnözés, halmozottan hátrányos helyzetű, dögkút, lyukas óra, közismereti tantárgy, szalagavató bál, ballagás, érettségi bankett, tanulmányi átlag, tudományos diákkör, főiskolai kar, szigorlat, kihelyezett kar, magyarellenes, elmagyarosodik, magyarkodik, cigányozik, zsidózik, cserbenhagyásos gázolás, kábítószerkereső kutya, lopóautó, kapaszkodósáv, fekvőrendőr, kaparós sorsjegy, nézettség, kergemarhakór, locsolkodás, kulák, ezüstvasárnap, kakaós csiga, disznótoros, cukrosbácsi, diszkópatkány, vacakol, megbuherál, flancol, flancos, beszól, lenyúl, olyanja van, megállt benne az ütő, izomagyú

8. Assess your knowledge of the following words on the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale. write the word into the appropriate cell.

mantelpiece, tillage, disrupt, insecticide, entomology, estate agent, ginger, gnome, stilettos, pet hate, susceptible, pigeon-holing, flamboyant, jumpsuit, dipsticks, groan, flywheel, spin drier, heartburn, plate glass, concussion, steeplechase, breathalyser, piles

1.	I don't remember having seen this word before.	
2.	I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.	
3.	I have seen this word before, and I think it means _______ (synonym or translation).	
4.	I know this word. It means _________ (synonym or translation).	
5.	I can use this word in a sentence. e.g.: __________________ .	

9. Go to Appendix 2 and study an extract from *Úri muri* (by Zsigmond Móricz) and its translation into English. Identify Hungarian culture-specific items and see how they were translated into English.

10. Translate these sentences.

According to ***conservative*** *estimates the project will cost $10 billion.*	
She is a very poor teacher, she cannot ***control*** *her class.*	
Foxes are pests that must be ***controlled.***	

Intelligence *reports indicated that a major attack was in preparation.*	
She greased the tin ***liberally****.*	
His father was a Baptist ***minister****.*	
Motorists *were warned to keep off the road because of icy conditions.*	
He was a ***pathetic figure****, standing there in his pyjamas.*	
This treatment does not help. Indeed, it does ***positive*** *harm.*	
What do you propose in ***specific*** *terms?*	

11. Study the Google translation[55] of these sentences. Which ones are correct/ incorrect?

H. sentence – English translation by Google Translate	correct	incorrect
A brit sportolók 10 aranyérmet nyertek az olimpián. *British athletes have won 10 gold medals at the Olympics.*		
Lemerült az akkumulátor. *The battery is low.*		
A tényleges költség sokkal nagyobb volt, mint a tervezett. *The actual cost was much higher than planned.*		
Három kombájn dolgozott a táblán. *Three combine harvesters were working on the field.*		
Összkomfortos lakást vettem. *I bought an apartment with all comforts.*		
Három hétig csak konzervet ettünk. *For three weeks we ate only canned food.*		
A tanárnő szigorú, de nem konzekvens. *The teacher is strict but inconsistent.*		
Nincs meleg víz, elromlott a bojler. *No hot water, boiler broken.*		
Ez a prospektus sok hasznos utazási információt tartalmaz. *This brochure contains many useful travel information.*		
Nincs gyakorlatom a fordításban. *I have no practice in translation.*		
Nem vették fel az egyetemre, pedig protekciója is volt. *He was not admitted to the university, though he had protection.*		
A doktor írt számomra egy receptet. *The doctor wrote me a recipe.*		

[55] Accessed 03.10.2020.

Chapter 8
HUNGARIAN–ENGLISH PHRASEOLOGICAL CONTRASTS

8.1 Preview: Multi-word units

You will find conversations like this in any coursebook. What do they want to teach? Words or phrases? Could you write a list of *Important words* and another of *Important phrases*?

Doctor:	Good morning, Mr Morgan!
Man:	Good morning!
Doctor:	How do you feel, Mr Morgan?
Man:	Not very well.
Doctor:	What's your problem? What can I do for you?
Man:	I have a terrible headache. I'm coughing and my nose is running.
Doctor:	Do you have a fever?
Man:	No, fortunately I don't have a fever but sometimes I feel a bit dizzy.
Doctor:	I see. Get undressed, please. I have to examine you.
Man:	All right.
Doctor:	Well, I don't see anything serious, but I think you should stay at home for a few days. You shouldn't go to work. You should drink a lot of hot tea, but you shouldn't drink any cold drinks. If you feel worse, come back.
Man:	Thank you. Do I have to take any medicine?
Doctor:	Yes, you have to take these pills three times a day always before your meals.
Man:	All right. Thank you very much. Bye!
Doctor:	Bye![56]

Multi-word units, often referred to as formulaic sequences or formulaic language, are recurring fixed forms that are stored in and recalled from the mental lexicon holistically. In this book the two terms will be used as synonyms. Here are some examples:

harapós kutya; kóbor kutya; veszett kutya; házőrző kutya; kutya hideg van; kutya baja; a kutyát sem érdekli; nem ette meg a kutya a telet; a kutya mindenit; egyszer volt Budán kutyavásár; kutyából nem lesz szalonna; mindig az erősebb kutya ...; kutya legyek, ha..., stb.

[56] https://www.5percangol.hu/hasznos-parbeszedek/useful_dialogues_-at_the_doctors. Accessed 20.11.2020.

Good morning; Have a nice day; Could you please tell me the way to … Many happy returns of the day; tall and handsome; pass the buck; like a bat out of hell; in broad daylight; dirty trick; take a walk; brush one's teeth etc.

In our native language, it is the use of multi-word units that ensures native-like fluency. The strategy of acquiring multi-word units is central to the learning of a language. Ritualisation plays an important part in all communication: we tend to say the same thing in the same way over and over again. As Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) write, "*Just as we are creatures of habit in other aspects of our behaviour, so apparently are we in the ways we come to use language*". It is easier and takes less time to recall memorised phrases than to construct a sentence from scratch using the rules of grammar. Multi-word units also ensure native-like selection: the utterances of native speakers of a language are not only grammatically correct, but they sound 'right', i.e., they follow certain habitual modes of expressions. As against this, foreign learners' utterances may sound 'foreign': even though they are grammatically correct, they are 'not idiomatic', they do not contain the habitual formulaic sequences that are appropriate in the given situation. In a much-quoted article, Pawley and Syder (1983) give the following example: when a young man proposes to a young woman, he says *I want to marry you.* He could say, **I wish to be wedded to you*, or **I desire to become married to you*, or **I want marriage with you* – these utterances would also be grammatically correct, but they do not sound native-like. It is simply that the phrase commonly used in such a situation is *I want to marry you.* Native speakers do not exploit all the grammatically possible sentences of their language: they stick to certain habitual, routine modes of expression. Habitual modes of expression mean the use of multi-word units – idioms, collocations and other formulaic sequences. This means that foreign language learners must acquire, in addition to the grammar and lexical items of the foreign language, its formulaic sequences if they are to sound 'native-like'.

Habitual formulaic sequences are *unmarked* (jelöletlen), which means that they are the neutral, default mode of expression in everyday situations. Non-habitual expressions are *marked* (jelölt), i.e., they are novel, unusual expressions, carrying some new, additional meaning. The collocation *green fields* is often used, so it is unmarked; the collocation *copper sky,* which occurs only in poetry, is marked.

The use of unmarked collocations and other multi-word units is typical of everyday conversation and academic language. Everyday conversation may consist of up to 80% of formulaic language. Marked collocations may sound poetic and are typical of literary language, where they carry additional meaning:

All in a <u>hot and copper sky</u>
The <u>bloody sun</u>, at noon

Right up above the mast did stand
No bigger than the Moon. (Coleridge: *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*)

The skies they were ashen and sober;
The leaves they were withering and sere;
It was night in the lonesome October
Of my most immemorial year;
It was hard by the dim lake of Auber,
In the misty mid region of Weir –
It was down by the dank tarn of Auber,
In the ghoul-haunted woodland of Weir.
(Poe: Ulalume)

Marked collocations may also be used to attract attention or for purposes of humour, so they are often used in advertising and humorous language:

I'd like some blond beer.
He is a confirmed do-gooder.

Formulaic language may also indicate individual or group identity. The use of the phrase *submit to analysis* indicates that you belong to the group of scientific researchers.

Multi-word units have great importance for foreign language learning. Acquiring multi-word units is a formidable learning task because of the sheer number of units to be acquired and because they are unpredictable and language-specific: many of them do not correspond literally to their equivalents in another language. Take, for example, a simple habitual collocation: Hungarian *felhoz egy példát* is *give an example* in English (**bring up an example*); *példát mutat* is *set an example* (**show an example*). Many collocations and idioms are also culture-specific.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, polysemy is closely related to collocations: meanings different from the central meaning will become apparent in collocations. For example, some of the meanings of the Hungarian verb *(meg)jelölni* corresponds to *mark* in English, but not always, so it is best to learn the collocations rather than the words separately:

Her cheek was marked with scratches.	*Az arcán karcolások voltak.*
I spent the evening marking first-year essays.	*Az estét az elsőévesek esszéinek javításával töltöttem.*
We entered through a door marked 'Private'.	*Egy "Privát" feliratú ajtón keresztül léptünk be.*
A memorial plaque will mark the spot where he died.	*Halálának helyszínét emléktábla jelzi majd.*

This tournament marks the official start of the season.	*Ez a verseny jelenti a szezon hivatalos kezdetét.*
A ceremony was held to mark the occasion.	*Ebből az alkalomból ünnepséget tartottak.*
Mark my words.	*Jegyezd meg a szavaimat/amit mondok.*

Poets use unusual collocations for poetic effect. However, if learners use unusual, marked collocations, it will seldom be regarded as poetic: it will be put down to incomplete knowledge of the language.

Multi-word units include idioms, lexical phrases, sayings, collocations, proverbs, nursery rhymes, songs, poems, texts, etc. A possible classification is shown (with Hungarian examples) in Table 15.

Table 15. *Classification of multiword units*

Idioms		*fűbe harap, vérszemet kap, kerülgeti a forró kását, nagy dobra ver* stb.
Habitual collocations		*kemény fagy, hajba kap, fegyvert ragad, vereséget szenved; ebédet főz, felsöpri a szemetet; dühöngő őrült, avas szalonna* *katolikus/református testvéreink* stb.
Binomials		*hölgyeim és uraim, hideg-meleg folyóvíz, egy lépés előre, két lépés hátra, vagy így, vagy úgy* stb.
Lexical phrases	Single-word formulae	*Lóra! Tűz! Segítség! Lábhoz!*
	Multiword formulae: conversational gambits, pragmatic formulae, lexicalised sentence stems	*Jó reggelt! Ezer bocsánat! Fogadja őszinte részvétemet! Hálásan köszönöm. Állj! Ki vagy? Fel a kezekkel! Lépés indulj! Mellékesen megjegyzem, hogy …, Mindent összevetve…; Először is; Befejezésül engedjék meg, hogy…; A te helyedben…* (+feltételes módban álló ige); *Sajnálom, hogy … megvárakoztattam/elkéstem;* stb.
	full sentences: situational sentences, proverbs, clichés	*Ennek a kérdésnek a tisztázására további kutatásokra van szükség.* *Kutyából nem lesz szalonna. Nem akarom a forró kását kerülgetni, de …*
Memorised texts: quotations, winged words, poems, nursery rhymes, prayers, lists, etc.		*Lenni vagy nem lenni, ez itt a kérdés.* *Ej. mi a kő, tyúkanyó …* *Talpra, magyar, hí a haza …* *Akácos út, ha végigmegyek rajtad én …* *Zúgva száll, mint a győzelmi zászló …* *Ez elment vadászni, ez meglőtte …* *Ecc, pecc, kimehetsz …* *Mi Atyánk, ki vagy a mennyekben …* *hetes, nyolcas, kilences, tízes, alsó, felső, király, ász*

8.2 Idioms

Idioms are opaque, i.e. non-compositional: their meaning cannot be understood on the basis of the constituents. E.g., the meaning of *have a chip on one's shoulder* has nothing to do with *chip and shoulder:* it means "to seem angry all the time because you think you have been treated unfairly or feel you are not as good as other people". Here is an example:

He's got a chip on his shoulder about not having been to university.

In a similar way, *pass the buck* has nothing (or very little) to do with *buck* (dollar). It means to shift or reassign the blame or responsibility (for something) to another person.

> "**The buck stops here**" is a phrase that was popularised by U.S. President Harry S. Truman, who kept a sign with that phrase on his desk in the Oval Office. The phrase refers to the notion that the President has to make the decisions and accept the ultimate responsibility for those decisions.[57]

While receptive knowledge of idioms is important, the possibility of productive use by foreign learners is limited for the following reasons:

- The foreign learner may not understand the exact meaning of an idiom and the contexts in which it can be used (e.g. in summing up a story: see McCarthy 1990).
- Idioms often have a particular stylistic value: they are often informal or colloquial. The foreign learner is not expected to be very informal or colloquial. The use of idioms also depends on social distance.
- Cross-linguistic similarities may mislead the foreign learner.

8.2.1 Cross-linguistic correspondences between Hungarian and English idioms

Some idioms literally correspond and have the same meaning, e.g. *kiönti a szívét – pour one's heart out to someone.* Some contain different words in L1 and L2 but have the same or very similar meaning: *iszik, mint a kefekötő – drinks like a lord.* Some L2 idioms show some similarity of meaning to L2 idioms, but there are differences, too. E.g., *a kecske is jóllakjon, a káposzta is megmaradjon* has a meaning very similar to *have one's cake and eat it,* but the

[57] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Buck_passing. Last accessed 12.12.2022.

latter emphasises the impossibility of achieving both aims at the same time, while the former is often used to describe a satisfactory compromise. There are idioms in L1 and L2 that are somewhat similar in meaning, but the differences are quite substantial, as in *Bámul, mint borjú az új kapura – Look like a stuck pig*, or *Több is veszett Mohácsnál – it's no use crying over spilt milk.* And finally, some L1 idioms have no correspondent in L2, and vice versa: *nem babra megy a játék* and *hátrább az agarakkal* have no correspondents in English, while *I can see the yellow streak in him* and *wear someone's heart on one's sleeve* have no correspondents in Hungarian.

As in L1 acquisition, non-compositional, metaphorical idioms are in general difficult to learn, especially if the constituent words are unknown or have an obscured meaning, as in *trip the lights fantastic* ('to dance'). L1–L2 contrast may add to the difficulty, if the idiom goes back to a different basis, or if it has no equivalent in L1. Other factors include the idiom's image power, grammatical regularity, pronounceability, length, meaningfulness, etc.

8.3 Collocations

Frequently occurring word combinations are called (habitual) collocations. Collocations are not idiomatic: their meaning depends on the meaning of the constituents. Yet they can be regarded as multi-word units because they are either stored holistically in the ML or have a *priming effect*. This means that after hearing the first constituent of a collocation one can guess what the next word is going to be. If one hears the word *vicious*, one will expect that the next word will be *circle* or *dog*, depending on context; in a business context the word *conclude* will prime the word *(a) deal.*

Collocations are arbitrary, unpredictable and language specific. Thus, there is no reason why *erős forgalom* is a habitual collocation in Hungarian, but **súlyos forgalom* is not. Conversely, there is no explanation for the fact that *strong traffic* sounds un-English, while *heavy traffic* is all right. According to McCarthy (1990) the collocations *'beige car'* and *'blond hair'* are acceptable in English, while **blond car* and **beige hair* are not. In Hungarian we talk of *világos sör*; in Romanian the same type of beer is called *bere blondă* ('blond beer'), while in English *pale ale* or *lager. Light beer* is a beer with a reduced alcohol content or calories.

8.3.1 Collocational differences

Since collocations are arbitrary, it is very difficult to discover regular, systematic collocational differences between English and Hungarian. One type of difference that has been observed in connection with adjective/noun

collocations (Heltai 1989) is that the number of transferred senses in spatial adjectives is higher in English than in Hungarian. In English there is a strong tendency to use spatial adjectives in adjective/noun collocations to denote non-spatial relations such as number, degree, intensity, evaluation, etc. The same applies to Hungarian to a lesser extent. Consider these examples:

long odds, broad daylight, broad humour, broad accent; high seas, high colour, high words, tall order, tall task, tall story, narrow search, short supply, short temper

Another difference seems to be that adjective/noun collocations in English may be more elliptical than those in Hungarian (cf. 9.10.2).

informed consent [consent obtained after the patient was given sufficient information]
low-nicotine smokers [smokers smoking cigarettes with a low nicotine content]

Native speaker knowledge to a great extent depends on knowledge of collocations: Speaking 'idiomatically' really means using habitual collocations rather than idioms. In foreign language learning, collocational appropriacy is extremely important at the *advanced level,* where the learner is expected to approximate to native language norms. The trouble is that there is a high number of collocations in each language (hundreds of thousands), and it is difficult to memorise so many, and since collocations are language-specific, L1 correspondents may mislead the learner. The danger of deceptive transferability is high: the English correspondents of *példát felhoz, fogat mos, kávét főz etc.* do not correspond literally to these Hungarian collocations.

Collocations can be studied with the help of collocational dictionaries, concordance programs, web searches and parallel texts. Paying conscious attention to collocations and other multi-word units during extensive reading and listening, doing vocabulary exercises (e.g., McCarthy and O'Dell 1999), and translating from Hungarian into English may be useful.

Many collocations are register-specific: *store in a dry and cool place* is specific to medicine labels, *commit a criminal offense* is specific to the legal register, *corporal works of mercy* is specific to the religious register. Register-specific collocations in academic English are, e.g., *propose a theory, on a similar note, recent research suggests, further research is needed* etc. A frequent source of error is the mixing of registers, e.g., *we have to remark* may be acceptable in conversational registers, but *it should be noted* is more appropriate in scientific registers.

8.3.2 Binomials and trinomials

Binomials are a type of collocation, consisting of coordinated nouns, adjectives or verbs. Most of them are transparent, i.e., compositional, although some binomials contain words not used elsewhere, e.g., *spick and span.* What is special about them is that the order of the constituents is fixed:

Ladies and Gentlemen, come and go, tall and handsome, poor but honest

According to McCarthy and O'Dell (1999), there is a large number of binomials in English, occurring regularly in spoken language, and active knowledge and use of binomials is more important for the foreign learner than knowledge of idioms. Binomials are language-specific: some L1 binomials correspond to L2 binomials literally, some differ in the order of constituents, some use different words but have a similar meaning, and some binomials are register-specific. Consider the following examples:

day and night	– *éjjel-nappal*
in and out	– *ki és be*
bread and butter	– *vajaskenyér*
supply and demand	– *kereslet és kínálat*
I'm alive and well	– *élek és virulok*
(search) high and low	– *égen-földön (keres)*
(be left) high and dry	– (?) (megfeneklett, cserben/faképnél hagyták)[58]
hit or miss	– (?) (vagy sikerül, vagy nem)
null and void	– *semmis és érvénytelen*
aid and abet	– *felbujtás és bűnsegély*

Trinomials are similar to binomials but consist of three parts. They are less frequent. Not all English trinomials have counterparts in Hungarian: e.g., *ready, able and willing* can be translated (*kész, hajlandó és képes rá*), but this translation is not an established trinomial in Hungarian.

Trinomials may also function as rhetorical devices, either in common use, or invented by particular speakers, e.g., *to speak the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth; The pleasure is momentary, the position ridiculous, and the expense damnable.*[59]

[58] The question mark indicates that there is no good correspondence.

[59] Attributed to Philip Stanhope, 4th Earl of Chesterfield. https://www.brainyquote.com/authors/philip-stanhope-4th-earl-quotes. Last accessed 20.11.2020.

8.4 Lexical Phrases

Lexical phrases (Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992) can be regarded as a type of collocation in that they are compositional. Yet they count as set phrases because they are stored in and recalled from the ML holistically. What distinguishes them from ordinary collocations is that they are used to perform certain discourse and/or pragmatic functions, such as

- Greetings, apologising, inviting, etc.: *Have a nice day! Excuse me. May I help you?*, etc.
- Discourse organisers: *For a start ...; By the way; Talking of ...; In conclusion;* etc.

Lexical phrases are also language specific. Literal correspondence between L1 and L2 lexical phases cannot be taken for granted:

Bocsánatot kérek.	*– I am sorry/Excuse me/I do apologise.*
Hogy rövidre fogjam ...	*– To cut a long story short ...*
Mellékesen jegyzem meg, ...	*– By the way ...*
Meg kell jegyeznünk...	*– It should be noted...*

Public notices may be regarded as lexical phrases:

Idegeneknek tilos a belépés	*– Staff only*
Rögtön jövök.	*– Back in a minute.*
Köszönjük, hogy nálunk vásárolt.	*– Thank you for your custom.*

The differences between idioms, collocations (including binomials and trinomials) and lexical phrases can be summarised as follows:

- Idioms are non-compositional (opaque): their meaning does not depend on the meaning of constituents. They have no pragmatic/discourse function.
- Collocations are compositional (transparent). They have no pragmatic/discourse function.
- Lexical phrases are compositional (transparent). Unlike other types of collocations, they have a pragmatic or discourse function.

8.5 Proverbs

Proverbs, like idioms, may or may not have correspondents across languages. If they do, correspondence may be literal or non-literal. The following examples will illustrate the various types of (non)correspondence:

A látszat néha csal. – *Appearances are deceptive.*
Sok bába közt elvész a gyerek. – *Too many cooks spoil the broth.*
Több is veszett Mohácsnál. – *More was lost in the Battle of Mohács (as the Hungarian saying goes).*

8.6 Tasks

1. Find four words that are related in meaning to the words in bold.

table	*star*	*coffee*	*turn*	*furniture*
	chair	*round*	*lie*	*sick*
crime	*offence*	*built-up area*	*commit*	*dunce*
	carry out	*sin*	*force*	*arson*

2. Which of these phrases would you class as a. formal, b. neutral, and c. informal?

Participants are kindly requested to remove their hats.
There's neither rhyme nor reason in his behaviour.
Convey to them our thanks.
Particular mention should be made of…
I am open to correction here.
This will cook Arthur's goose.
All that glitters is not gold.
He's as blind as a bat.
I've been working like a dog.
I told him to keep off the grass.
I tell you he's a liar.
Go tell it to the marines, they will believe everything.
If you don't accept me as your lover, I'll hang myself on a tree in front of your house.
Shakespeare is God.
Hereby I second the motion.
There was nothing to be done; she had been dead some hours.
I have lots of other battles to fight.
Are you sure you're all right? – Stop nagging me; I'm perfectly all right.
Here I want to spend some time examining this issue. First, I propose to look briefly at the history of interest in the problem, then spend some time on its origins and magnitude before turning to an assessment of the present situation and approaches to its solution. Finally, I want to have a short peek at possible future prospects.

What we could see was just an approaching train.
His death was caused by a substance that seemed to be a simple crystalline salt, but was in fact a powerful poison.

3. Put these (underlined) multi-word units into the appropriate columns.

Could you tell me the way to the Railway Station?
So you are the Good Samaritan?
He drinks a lot. No wonder that he never has any money.
I'm looking for someone to help me.
The whole afternoon I was roaming the streets.
She was not hurt, yet she was crying blue murder.
They are getting a divorce.
How about some music?
Would you like a cup of tea?
I made a mistake. I am sorry.
He committed murder and was jailed for life.
Let's play Scrabble. – I'm not in the mood.
I have a headache.
He was in high spirits.
He is a heavy smoker.
I'm in the red, I cannot pay you now.
I do apologize.
It should be noted that there was no real increase in the GDP.
We like to employ committed teachers.
She's a bag of bones.
He told me a pack of lies.
You may still win, don't lose heart.
I am the head of this family who brings home the bacon!

Idioms	Collocations	Lexical phrases

4. What are the Hungarian correspondents of the following idioms/proverbs?

Cross One's Heart and Hope to Die
From the Bottom of One's Heart
Have a Soft Spot in One's Heart for Someone
Pour One's Heart Out to Someone
Wear Someone's Heart on One's Sleeve

Young at Heart
Not Have the Heart to Do Something
With All One's Heart and Soul

5. Find the English equivalents of these idiomatic phrases and proverbs and write them (only the English equivalent) in the appropriate column. if there is no equivalent or similar idiom, translate or explain the meaning.

1. *Sok bába közt elvész a gyerek.*
2. *Bagoly mondja a verébnek, hogy nagyfejű.*
3. *Falra hányt borsó.*
4. *Csöbörből vödörbe.*
5. *Iszik, mint a kefekötő.*
6. *Pénz beszél, kutya ugat.*
7. *Több is veszett Mohácsnál.*
8. *Köti az ebet a karóhoz.*
9. *Kutyából nem lesz szalonna.*
10. *Csalánba nem üt ménkű.*
11. *A sáros csizmámat sem törülném hozzá.*
12. *Ígéretekkel tele a padlás.*
13. *Tele van a hócipőm.*
14. *Vak tyúk is talál szemet.*
15. *Bámul, mint borjú az újkapura.*
16. *Láttam már karón varjút.*
17. *Hogy kerül a csizma az asztalra?*
18. *Közös lónak túros a háta.*
19. *Ott hagyta, mint Szent Pál az oláhokat.*
20. *Menj Isten hírével.*

	Equivalent with exactly the same meaning	Similar, but partly different in meaning	No equivalent	
			Can be translated[60]	Can be explained
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				

[60] A translated Hungarian proverb in a given context may be understood by speakers of English, especially if they realize that it is the translation of a proverb. Adding a phrase like "as the Hungarian saying goes" may help to make the meaning clearer.

	Equivalent with exactly the same meaning	Similar, but partly different in mean-ing	No equivalent	
			Can be translated	Can be explained
6.				
7.				
8.				
9.				
10.				
11.				
12.				
13.				
14.				
15.				
16.				
17.				
18.				
19.				
20.				

6. Guess what the next word is going to be. Translate into English.

zsákutcába	
előnyben	
véget	
nagy hangsúlyt	
halmozottan hátrányos	
a termékek széles	
az áruk szabad	
kedvező természeti	
fizetőképes	
versenyképes	
látványos	
nagy horderejű	
drasztikusan	
kutyába se	

nem ette meg a	
notórius	
dinamikus	
kiemelt	
nagyívű	
ordas	
cudar	
otromba	
odvas	
megrögzött	
szegény, de …	
kicsi, de …	
rövid, de …	
sz..rul, de …	
felelősséget	
fenntartható	
jelentős beruházásokat	
jelentős erőfeszítéseket	
jelentős fejlődést	
jelentős hatást	
jelentős szerepet	
jelentős változásokon	
önellátó	
ha a fene	
ha cigánygyerekek	
kenyere javát	
szemenszedett	
csont nélkül	
élből	
felbecsülhetetlen	

7. Which words may be collocated with the following?

vicious	
confirmed	
heavy	
conclude	
submit	
rancid	

8. Which adjectives can you collocate with these nouns?

	coffee	*man*	*work*	*weather*	*time*	*smoker*
hard						
heavy						
strong						

	hope	*probability*	*wish*	*opportunity*	*chance*	*possibility*
high						
good						
strong						

9. Which nouns can you collocate with these adjectives?

	high/low	*heavy/light*	*large/small*	*powerful*	*huge*
pressure					
damage					
earthquake					
work					
fire					
explosion					
speed					
rain					
forest					

10. Translate.

commit a crime	
committed teacher	
confirmed drunkard	
confirmed liar	
confirmed booking	
damn bastard	
a pack of lies	
a bag of bones	
give a laugh	
give an example	
multiple-choice test	
multiple fracture	
abysmal ignorance	
habitual collocation	

11. Translate these binomial expressions into English.
fel-alá jár, mindenféle lim-lom, utoljára, de nem utolsósorban, előre-hátra, fekete-fehér film, hideg-meleg folyó víz, kereslet és kínálat, lassan, de biztosan, szigorú, de igazságos, törvény és rend, előbb-utóbb, árkon-bokron át, sülve-főve

12. Identify the collocations, binomials, trinomials, idioms and other kinds of phrases in this text.

'You are not – you will excuse my asking – in actual need of money, Mr Leonides?'

'Income tax, as you know, is somewhat heavy, Chief-Inspector – but my income amply suffices for my needs – and for my wife's. Moreover, my father frequently made us all very generous gifts, and had any emergency arisen, he would have come to the rescue immediately.'

Philip added coldly and clearly:

'I can assure you that I had no financial reason for desiring my father's death, Chief-Inspector.'

'I am very sorry, Mr Leonides, if you think I suggested anything of the kind. But we have to get at all the facts. Now I'm afraid I must ask you some rather delicate questions. They refer to the relations between your father and his wife. Were they on happy terms together?'

'As far as I know, perfectly.'

'No quarrels?'

'I do not think so.'

'There was a – great disparity in age?'

'There was.'

'Did you – excuse me – approve of your father's second marriage.'

'My approval was not asked.'

'That is not an answer, Mr Leonides.'

'Since you press the point, I will say that I considered the marriage unwise.'

'Did you remonstrate with your father about it.'

'When I heard of it, it was an accomplished fact.'

'Rather a shock to you – eh?'

Philip did not reply.

'Was there any bad feeling about the matter?'

'My father was at perfect liberty to do as he pleased.'

'Your relations with Mrs Leonides have been amicable?'

'Perfectly.'

'You are on friendly terms with her?'

'We very seldom meet.'

Chief Inspector Taverner shifted his ground.

'Can you tell me something about Mr Laurence Brown?'

'I'm afraid I can't. He was engaged by my father.'

'But he was engaged to teach your children, Mr Leonides.'

'True. My son was a sufferer from infantile paralysis – fortunately a light case – and it was considered not advisable to send him to a public school. My father suggested that he and my young daughter Josephine should have a private tutor – the choice at the time was rather limited – since the tutor in question must be ineligible for military service. This young man's credentials were satisfactory, my father and my aunt (who has always looked after the children's welfare) were satisfied, and I acquiesced. I may add that I have no fault to find with his teaching, which has been conscientious and adequate.'

'His living quarters are in your father's part of the house, not here?'

'There was more room up there.'

'Have you ever noticed – I am sorry to ask this – any signs of intimacy between Laurence Brown and your stepmother?'

'I have had no opportunity of observing anything of the kind.'

'Have you heard any gossip or tittle-tattle on the subject?'

'I don't listen to gossip or tittle-tattle, Chief-Inspector.'

'Very creditable,' said Inspector Tavernerm 'so you've seen no evil, heard no evil, and aren't speaking any evil?'

'If you like to put it that way, Chief Inspector.'

Inspector Taverner got up.

'Well', he said, 'thank you very much, Mr Leonides.'

I followed him unobtrusively out of the room.

'Whew', said Taverner, 'he's a cold fish!'[61]

13. Now complete these sentences.

You are not – you will excuse ______ in ____ ____ of money?

______ tax, as you know, is somewhat ______.

My father ______ us very generous gifts, and had any emergency ______, he would have _____ to the ______ immediately.

I can ______ you that I had no financial _______ for ______ my father's death.

I did not suggest anything of ___ _____. Now I'm afraid I must ask you some rather _______ questions.

My father was at ______ liberty to do as he ______.

You are on ______ terms with her?

So, you've _____ no evil, _____ no evil and aren't speaking any evil?

If you like to ____ it that way, Inspector.

[61] Agatha Christie: *Crooked House,* London, Penguin Books, 1953, 35.

14. Match the words in the first lines with those in the second:
adverse, bad, bare, big, bitter, black, blank, blind, blue, brief

cold (2x), effects, humour, lull, murder, paper, rage, stick, trees
bright, broad, brute, clear, close, common, crisp, cruel, deadly, illegitimate births, blue eyes, daylight, disease, force, idea, jokes, observation, sense, snow

cooperative, editorial, glamorous, historical, mental, obsessive, prime, ultimate, unpalatable, wintry

aim, blonde, candidate, case, effort, precision, preface, scholarship, truth, weather

15. Study these concordances[62]: How many different meanings can you identify? What typical collocations occur? Which meanings and which types of collocation are the most frequent?

Concordance for 'case' (7 lines)
Text: ALDERSON.DOC

5 ay. In fact, it is frequently the	case	that the ability to read in English
5 in their weaker language (in this	case,	Irish) at a slower rate and with l
44 to be taught separately. In this	case,	the learner's ability to read in t
61 lly in a second language (in this	case,	French) eventually do as well in r
62 ter circumstance (conceivably the	case	with the Mexican Indian studies) le
122 There is an increasingly strong	case	to be made, however, for deliberat
123 e are advocating, in effect, is a	case	study approach, longitudinal in nat

Concordance for 'case' (4 lines)
Text: ALICE26A.TXT

8 tseem to dry me at all.' `In that	case,'	said the Dodo solemnly, rising to
8 that it might be hungry, in which	case	it would be very likely to eat her u
8 took to the law, And argued each	case	with my wife; And the muscular str
8 ime together.' `Which is just the	case	with MINE,' said the Hatter. Alice

Concordance for 'case' (3 lines)
Text: HIGHWAY.TXT

85 d, keep looking and listening in	case	you didn't see some traffic – or in
86 u didn't see some traffic – or in	case	other traffic suddenly appears.
11 oking both ways and listening in	case	a driver, motorcyclists or pedal cy

62 From The Chandler, Brian: *Longman Mini Concordancer: Text Study Software for Teachers and Students.*Harlow, Longman, 1989

Concordance for 'case' (17 lines)
Text: HYDE10.TXT

18 oks being put into etext in which	case	we have used a very different pape
196 t displays the etext (as is the	case,	for instance, with most word proce
384 as only natural. But the doctor's	case	was what struck me. He was the us
546 it; it provided not only that, in	case	of the decease of Henry Jekyll, M.
549 ctor Edward Hyde," but that in	case	of 12) Dr. Jekyll's "disappeara
100 se." THE CAREW MURDER	case	NEARLY a year later, in the mont
1529 G. J. Utterson ALONE and in	case	of his predecease to be destroyed u
2168 efore, to serve as a testament in	case	of death and as a deed of gift in c
2169 of death and as a deed of gift in	case	of disappearance; but, in place of
218 why fled? and how? and in that	case,	can we venture to declare this sui
231 ntil to-morrow morning. In that	case,	dear Lanyon, do my errand when it
2375 grew that I was dealing with a	case	of cerebral disease: and though I d
2592 ound man's dual nature. In this	case,	I was driven to reflect deeply and
3001 among temptations; and in my	case,	to be tempted, however slightly, w

16. Translate.

a kapott eredmények, kísérletet állítottunk be, az eredmények nem egyértelműek, azt a következtetést vontuk le, szignifikáns összefüggést találtunk, meggyőzően bizonyítja, az eddigi eredmények, kutatásokat végeztünk, alapvető jelentőségű

17. To which registers do these collocations belong?

- *affect people's behaviour, social pressures, hold this belief, susceptibility to situational pressures, situational variables, human values were suspended*
- *apply controls, have resistance to the chemical, local growing conditions, prevent spread of infection, with minimal environmental impact*
- *operates on the principle of, pulled with a force of X, multiplied the 181 foot per minute by 180 pounds of force*
- *the dollar was down against the yen but up against the euro, rebound of the dollar against the yen, The X closed up 9.24, or 0.1 percent, the Y index edged up 4.79, or 0.4 percent, the dollar fell to 81.18 yen Monday*

18. Do this test.

1. Ready-made units include ___ .

A. hyponyms B. synonyms C. lexical phrases D. register

2. Which of the following word pairs exemplifies the relation of hyponymy?

A. *table/desk* B. *leg/foot* C. *pussy/cat* D. *planet/Venus*

3. Which of the following word pairs does **NOT** exemplify the relation of hyponymy?
A. *oak/tree* B. *chicken/egg* C. *bread/food* D. *book/dictionary*

4. Which of the following word pairs exemplifies the relation of hyponymy?
A. *vegetable; carrots* B. *tree; leaf* C. *insect; bird* D. *fruit; vegetable*

5. The sentence *I like all cats, except dogs* is unacceptable because …
A. *cat* and *dog* are co-hyponyms B. *cat* and *dog* are antonyms
C. *cat* and *dog* are synonyms D. *dog* is superordinate to *cat*

6. Mark the statement which is **FALSE**.
A. Synonyms may have different collocational possibilities.
B. Synonyms are interchangeable in any context.
C. Synonyms may differ in the degree of formality.
D. Synonyms may have different syntactic properties.

7. Which of the following word pairs exemplifies the relation of synonymy?
A. *woman; man* B. *table; desk* C. *move; fly* D. *understand; comprehend*

8. Which of the following word pairs exemplifies the relation of synonymy?
A. *voyage/journey* B. *animal/fish* C. *hard/soft* D. *building/skyscraper*

9. Which of the following word pairs does **NOT** exemplify the relation of synonymy?
A. *short/brief* B. *hot/warm* C. *high/tall* D. *holy/sacred*

10. Which statement is **TRUE**?
A. Polysemy is pervasive in all human languages.
B. Polysemy is a relation between words with similar meanings.
C. Polysemy is found only in scientific words.
D. Polysemy is a relation between two words that mean the same.

11. Which of these is an idiom?
A. *null and void* B. *aiding and abetting crime*
C. *this will cook Arthur's goose* D. *all that glitters is not gold*

12. Which of these is an idiom?
A. *a song and a dance* B. *we have to get at all the facts*
C. *as far as I know* D. *don't lose heart*

13. Which of these collocations is a habitual (unmarked) collocation?
A. *to cook coffee* B. *to put an exam*
C. *to give a laugh* D. *to bring up an example*

14. Which of these collocations is a habitual (unmarked) collocation?
A. *lead a diary* B. *lead a life* C. *lead a car* D. *lead a household*

15. Which of these collocations is **NOT** a habitual collocation in English?
A. *make room for sy* B. *make a noise* C. *make homework* D. *make a fuss*

16. Which of these collocations is **NOT** a habitual one?
A. *badly need* B. *completely exhausted*
C. *fully dressed* D. *entirely interested*

17. Which of these words is **NOT** habitually collocated with *pass*?
A. *the ball* B. *an exam* C. *time* D. *hair*

18. Which of these words can**NOT** be related collocationally to *raw*?
A. *meat* B. *deal* C. *egg* D. *sea*

19. Which of these words cannot be related collocationally to *flow?*
A. *river* B. *deliberately* C. *water* D. *tears*

20. Which of these words can**NOT** be related collocationally to *go*?
A. *home* B. *pineapples* C. *wrong* D *without saying*

21. Which of these words can**NOT** be related collocationally to *blue*?
A. *pale* B. *deep* C. *light* D. *hard*

22. Which of these collocations is a marked (novel) collocation?
A. *broken promise* B. *broken heart* C. *broken furniture* D. *broken desire*

23. Which of these collocations is a marked (novel) collocation?
A. *fresh taste* B. *taste a wine* C. *taste sweet* D. *taste the bicycle*

24. Which of these collocations is marked?
A. *to develop one's knowledge* B. *to develop appendicitis*
C. *to develop a beard* D. *to develop a film*

25. Which of these collocations is marked?
A. *unprecedented event* B. *confirmed drunkard*
C. *habitual collocation* D. *hot-blooded murder*

26. Which of these collocations is marked?
A. *to wash one's hands* B. *to wash one's teeth*
C. *to wash one's face* D. *to wash easily*

27. The difficulty of learning collocations is due to the fact that they are ... .
A. arbitrary B. language specific C. unpredictable D. All of A, B and C.

28. Marked collocations are very common in ...
A. technical language B. advertisements
C. instructions for use D. bank statements

29. Everyday conversation is full of ... collocations.
A. marked B. paradigmatic C. unmarked D. novel

30. Marked collocations are not very common in ...
A. poetry B. magazine articles C. science textbooks D. advertisements

31. Which of the following statements is **FALSE**?
A. Collocations are language specific. B. Collocations are unpredictable.
C. Collocations are usually transparent. D. Collocations have pragmatic function.

32. Which of these sentences contains a binomial?
A. *His teaching was conscientious and adequate.*
B. *My father and my aunt were satisfied.*
C. *The agreement was declared null and void.*
D. *He put on his shoes and his hat.*

33. Which of the underlined phrases is a binomial?
A. *Philip added coldly and clearly: 'My approval was not asked.'*
B. *There's neither rhyme nor reason in his behaviour.*
C. *Have you heard any gossip or tittle-tattle on the subject?*
D. *He has a son and a daughter.*

34. Which of these sentences does **NOT** contain a binomial?
A. *Your money or your life.* B. *On Saturday and Sunday we are closed.*
C. *We have hot and cold running water.* D. *He was tall and handsome.*

35. Which of these binomials has been reversed?
A. *fish and chips* B. *poor but honest*
C. *tall and handsome* D. *demand and supply*

36. Which of these is a feature of binomials?
A. The order of their constituents is fixed.
B. They have a pragmatic function.
C. They have idiotic meaning.
D. They contain subordination.

37. Mark the statement which is **FALSE**.
A. Binomials are multi-word units.
B. The order of elements in a binomial cannot be reversed.
C. Binomials have specific pragmatic functions.
D. Most binomials are transparent.

38. Which of these sentences contains a trinomial?
A. *He bought cheese, eggs and milk.*
B. *We searched high and low, but could not find her.*
C. *Will you tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth*?
D. *Words, words, words.*

39. Which of the following is a lexical phrase?
A. *you will excuse my asking*
B. *in need of money*
C. *living quarters*
D. *signs of intimacy*

40. Which of the following is a lexical phrase?
A. *to cut a long story short*
B. *to kick the bucket*
C. *to aid and abet crime*
D. *to mount a rescue operation*

41. Which of the following is **NOT** a lexical phrase?
A. *If you like to put it that way*
B. *I am sorry to ask this*
C. *he shifted his ground*
D. *I can assure you that*

Chapter 9
HUNGARIAN–ENGLISH TEXT-BUILDING CONTRASTS

9.1 Preview: Are these texts? Why (not)?

A. *So she went into the garden to cut a cabbage leaf to make an apple pie; and at the same time a great she-bear, coming up the street, popped his head into the shop. 'What? No soap?' So he died, and she very imprudently married the barber; and there were present Picninnies, and the Jobillilies, and the Garyulies, and the Grand Panjandram himself, with the little round button at top, and they all fell to playing the game of catch-as-catch-can, till the gunpowder ran out at the heel of the boots.*[63]
B. *– Have you heard about the policeman who married a prostitute?* *– Well?* *– He dragged **her** down to **his** own level.*

Discuss:
- Are these coherent texts?
- Are there formal links in Text *A/B* that help to make the text coherent?
- Are formal links sufficient to ensure coherence?

9.2 Discourse

Linguistic competence enables speakers to generate grammatically well-formed sentences. In actual communication this is not enough: the sentences generated must be coherent and must express a unified meaning. To achieve this, speakers must have discourse competence. Acquiring discourse competence in a foreign language is part and parcel of foreign language learning, especially at advanced level, as evidenced by the rating scales of *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR, 2020).

Discourse competence is summarised by Cook (1990) as the ability to combine form and meaning to achieve unified (coherent) spoken or written texts in different genres. CEFR defines it in a similar way: "Discourse competence is the ability of a user/learner to arrange sentences in sequence so as to produce

[63] Composed by Samuel Foote (1720–77), actor and dramatist, to test the memory of his fellow actor Charles Macklin, who had asserted that he could repeat anything after hearing it once. https://interestingliterature.com/2018/09/the-great-panjandrum-himself-nonsense-literature-before-carroll-and-lear/. Last accessed 23.10.2020.

coherent stretches of language." It includes the ability to align sentences by using cohesive devices, the ability to arrange given and new information and to place the focus appropriately.

Oral discourse competence includes the ability to initiate and to manage discourse, to take turns and to bring a discourse to an end appropriately, to use the conventions of spoken genres (telling a story, giving instructions, etc.), to give feedback on and follow up statements and inferences by other speakers and so help the development of the discussion (CEFR p. 35), to use the appropriate devices to get and keep the floor, to gain time, to signpost discourse and in general to produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices (CEFR p. 36). It is important to note that oral discourse skills are closely related to ready-made language: most discourse functions are realized through lexical phrases (see Chapter 8) Ready-made formulas are used, e.g., for getting and keeping the floor, time-gaining, etc.

Written discourse competence includes the ability to design texts, realizing the macrofunctions (description, narrative, exposition, argumentation, etc.), observing the conventions of a given discourse community, i.e. the requirements of genre and register. Of great importance in written discourse is thematic development: competent writers can "give elaborate descriptions and narratives, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion", and "can create coherent and cohesive text making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of cohesive devices: can use a variety of linking words efficiently to mark clearly the relationships between ideas" (CEFR p. 37).

Discourse analysis is the study of language *above sentence level* and *in context.* Another name for discourse analysis is *text linguistics* (German *Textlinguistik*, Hungarian *szövegnyelvészet*). The subject of discourse analysis is discourse or text, both oral and written. The defining feature of discourse/text is that it is (or at least should be) *coherent.* The term *discourse* and *text* are often used interchangeably: we may read about oral and written *discourse* as well as oral and written *texts.* However, the term *discourse* is more commonly used for oral discourse and the term *text* is more commonly applied to written texts.

Oral and written discourse exhibit vast differences. The most important topics studied by *oral discourse analysis* include turn-taking, adjacency pairs, discourse markers, speech acts (here it overlaps with pragmatics), cohesion in oral discourse and the grammatical and lexical features of oral vs written discourse. *Written discourse analysis* focuses on the macrostructure of texts, cohesive ties, presenting and arranging information in sentences, theme and focus, given and new information, register and genre.

There is a vast number of theoretical studies on discourse production and comprehension, discourse (macro)structure and processing, coherence and

cohesion and there are several well-known models of discourse (Halliday and Hasan 1976, Beaugrande and Dressler, Kintsch and van Dijk 1978, Mann and Thompson 1988, Petőfi 2004, etc.). Given the practical orientation of this book we must be selective, confining ourselves to reviewing *some* basic concepts and to focusing on *some* of the features of spoken and written discourse, particularly those where interlingual contrasts may be at work.

Research on written discourse analysis has studied the features of several registers (news, academic prose, fiction and so on; see Biber 1995) and genres (Swales 1990). Much of this work has found its way into foreign language teaching, appearing mainly in books on text-building skills and academic writing. However, there has been much less work on contrastive discourse analysis. In *Text-Building Skills* and *Academic Writing* (*Study writing*) books the conventions of L2 discourse in various registers and genres are usually described without reference to L1 conventions.

9.3 Contrastive discourse analysis

Crosslinguistic contrasts in various forms of discourse do influence L2 learners, but the contrasts at this level and their effects are much more difficult to identify than in the area of phonology and grammar. In the latter areas we have rules, and breaking the rules result in errors. In the case of discourse we have conventions, and the effects of ignoring the conventions are much less readily identifiable.

Unfortunately, there are few studies on Hungarian–English discourse contrasts. Some contrasts have been touched upon in Translation Studies literature (e.g., Károly 2007, 2012, 2014). However, a full comparison of contrasts in English and Hungarian oral and written discourse and text-building strategies in various registers and genres is still missing.

This chapter is not intended to cover the whole field of contrasts between English and Hungarian oral and written discourse organisation. It will discuss *some* selected contrasts, mainly relating to *written discourse*, based on observation, teaching experience and such literature that is available. In general, the Hallidayan tradition will be followed here, focusing on the *linguistic features* of various types of discourse rather than the cognitive aspects of text organisation.

9.4 Contrasts in Macrostructure

The organization of the most relevant propositions forming the gist of the text is called the macrostructure of texts (Kintsch, 2013). Text macrostructure is dependent on register and genre.

As regards crosslinguistic differences, there are considerable differences in the conventions of text organization in some written registers between English and some other languages. Such differences were explored by research on *contrastive rhetoric* (Kaplan 1966, Connor 1996), aimed to uncover culture-specific patterns of text organisation across cultures and genres. Kaplan showed that students of English with various linguistic backgrounds (Semitic, Oriental, Romance languages and Russian) use L1 rhetorical structures in L2 English writing (see Figure 2). While Anglo-American essays follow *a linear development*, Oriental languages use an indirect approach and come to the point only at the end, while in Russian there may be digressions and unnecessary detail. He proposed exercises to practice writing essays in an Anglo-American style.

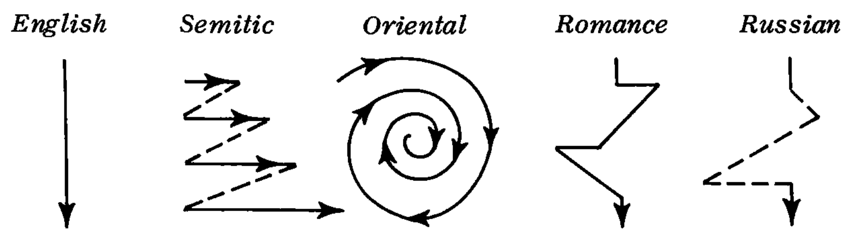


Figure 2. Culture-specific patterns of text organization according to Kaplan (1966)

Studying differences in text macrostructure is particularly relevant in academic writing skills courses for English majors, who have to write course assignments and thesis papers in English. This chapter, however, will not be concerned with Hungarian–English contrasts in macrostructure: on the one hand, there are few studies on this topic (see, however, Árvay and Tankó 2004, Neumeyer 2014), and, apparently, the features of academic English can be studied effectively without reference to contrasts.

9.5 Cohesive devices

Coherence is the central concept of discourse analysis. Oral and written discourse is supposed to be coherent. *Coherence* means that the different parts of a piece of discourse belong together and achieve a unified meaning, i.e. the given piece of discourse as a whole makes sense. Coherence is supported by the use of formal links (usually referred to as cohesive ties or cohesive devices), functional relations and background knowledge (also known as world knowledge, including cultural knowledge; see Cook 1989). A large number of discourse studies, following Halliday and Hasan's work (1976) were focused on textual cohesive mechanisms. Later research (e.g. Petőfi 2004) showed that *textual*

coherence plays a key role in the interpretation of texts, which is not based on cohesion and connectivity, but on world knowledge conceived of as conceptual schemata (so-called frames and scripts, among others) (see Andor 2019).

Cohesive devices or ties show the connection between the different parts of a stretch of discourse. Halliday and Hasan (1976) divided cohesive ties into *grammatical and lexical cohesive ties.* The former include reference, substitution, ellipsis and the use of conjunctions.[64] Syntactic repetition and consistency of tenses can also be regarded as cohesive in nature. Reference (mainly concerning the use of pronouns) may show exophoric, anaphoric and cataphoric relations. *Lexical cohesion* is realised mainly through repetition: full repetition, partial repetition or repetition (replacement) through synonymy, hyponymy, collocability, etc.

Although text coherence can be achieved without cohesive ties, they are usually present in most discourse (especially in written texts) and it is usually easier to understand a text that has a sufficient number of cohesive ties than one without such ties. Lexical cohesion may play a more important role in interpreting texts than grammatical cohesive ties.

9.5.1 Hungarian–English contrasts in cohesive devices: pronouns

Pronouns – usually classed as grammatical devices for cohesion – play an important role in providing cohesion. Texts usually refer to the same entity several times, and repeated reference is often realised through the use of pronouns.

Differences in the system and use of pronouns, especially personal pronouns, may create difficulty for Hungarian learners of English. In Hungarian there are no gendered personal pronouns: the third person singular pronoun *ő* corresponds to both *he* and *she* in English. As noted earlier (Chapter 1) this is a divergent phenomenon, and a major source of error and difficulty for Hungarian learners.

A further difficulty is that Hungarian is a *pro-drop language* (i.e., subject and object pronouns are usually dropped), while English is a non-pro-drop language. Personal pronouns are used in Hungarian only when they are emphatic or express contrast. In other cases the pronoun is dropped and verb conjugation expresses the subject and the object (definite conjugation – 'tárgyas/határozott ragozás'). The verb *látlak* ('I can see you') can be used as an independent sentence, since the verb ending expresses both the subject and the object. (Pronouns with adverbial endings are not dropped: *Rajta vagyok.*)

[64] Halliday and Hasan's model was later superseded by other models e.g. van Dijk (1980) and Petőfi (2004). However, it is widely used in TEFL literature, and for this reason it will be followed here, too.

For this reason, verb inflection in Hungarian is regarded as a cohesive device. Third person personal pronouns do not play an important role in text coherence. Consider the example given at the start of this chapter:

Have you heard about the policeman who married a prostitute?
He dragged her down to his own level.
Hallottál arról a rendőrről, aki prostituáltat vett feleségül?
Lerántotta a saját színvonalára.

Experience shows that it is not too difficult for Hungarians to learn that instead of verb endings subject and object pronouns must be used in English in all persons, but they may find it difficult to use gendered third person pronouns correctly and to keep track of pronominal referents in reading and listening comprehension. Difficulty also arises in translation. In translating from English into Hungarian 50–70% of the pronouns are (and should be) omitted (Heltai–Juhász 2002), while in Hungarian–English translation personal pronouns must be inserted: *Megsértettél – You have hurt me*; *Megmondtam – I have told you*; *Elrontottuk – We have made a mess of it*, etc. In English–Hungarian translation interference is common in the case of beginners, who tend to use the pronoun *ő* where it is unnecessary in Hungarian. Interference may lead to *translationese* in less professional translations:

Talán a szakértők tévedtek? Feltételezem, hogy ők tévedtek.[65]

In the given context *ők* is not emphatic, therefore it would have been better to omit it.

Due to dropping third-person pronouns, reference may be ambiguous in Hungarian. When identification of reference in English depends on the gender of the English pronoun, Hungarian must use nouns: names, name of profession, general nouns like *kislány, kisfiú, fiú, lány, férfi, apa, anya, nő, asszony, öreg, öregember, öregasszony* (Klaudy 1994):

He dragged her down to his own level.
– Lerántotta ***a nőt*** *a saját színvonalára.*

9.5.1.1 Co-reference chains

A typical feature of texts is that there are several co-reference chains in them, i.e., elements referring to the same entity, using various grammatical and lexical devices. In the following text, the central co-reference chain is connected to the word *farmer*: *igloo farmer* (headline), *a farmer, Howard Stevenson, he, Mr Stevenson, he, Mr Stevenson, he, he, he, Mr Stevenson, he.* If you

[65] Christie, A. 1991. *Szunnyadó gyilkosság*, Budapest, Hunga-Print, 169.

translate the text into Hungarian, you will find a different chain of co-reference, with the pronouns dropped. Other chains of co-reference are related to the words *survive, snow, drift, igloo, freeze, suffer, cold, rescue, sleep, hospital, doctor.*

Igloo farmer survives 27 frozen hours
A FARMER survived more than 27 hours in a freezing snowdrift by building an igloo.
Howard Stevenson was found yesterday – with *his* trousers frozen solid – five feet under the drift.
He was suffering from the cold but more worried about his missing dog, Sly.
Mr Stevenson vanished on Saturday morning after leaving *his* home in Lofthouse, North Yorkshire, to get *his* flock of 50 sheep.
He said: “I slipped into a deep drift and couldn’t get out. I knew I would have to be rescued, so I built an igloo over me” with the snow. “That kept me busy for a time and then I just lay back and waited.”
“I didn’t want to go to sleep and anyway I was cold and shivering, so that helped keep me awake.”
Mr Stevenson, 56, was so well protected that rescue teams failed to spot *him*, even though they were just 20 feet away.
He said: “I knew that if I went to sleep, that would be it. I would probably die, but I wasn’t ready to go just yet.”
He was found by local gamekeeper Joe Freeman, and flown by RAF helicopter to Harrogate District Hospital.
Hospital staff were amazed that *he* wasn’t suffering from hypothermia.
One doctor told *Mr Stevenson*, who was being kept in overnight: “If you can survive that, you can survive anything.”
A member of the rescue team, who accompanied *him* to the hospital, added: “*He*’s remarkably well, considering what *he* has been through.”[66]

9.5.2 Hungarian–English contrasts in cohesive devices: conjunctions

Apart from the fact that learners are apt to mix up certain English conjunctions, such as *however* and *although* (which cannot be attributed to L1 interference), a major difference between English and Hungarian lies in the frequency of conjunctions. Apparently, English uses fewer conjunctions than Hungarian (and many other languages). Therefore, in writing English and in translating into English, advanced learners of English must avoid using unnecessary conjunctions, while in translating from English into Hungarian addition of conjunctions may be desirable.

One reason for the reduced number of conjunctions in English is the use of participle clauses where Hungarian uses the conjunction *és*:

[66] Electronic Telegraph, Thursday 11 February 1999. Accessed 11.05.2001.

A félig megrágott kajára itt sok milliárd baktérium szabadul rá, ***és*** *segítenek a növényi rostok lebontásában.*

*Here billions of bacteria are let loose on the half-chewed food, help****ing*** *to break down vegetable fibers.*

A further difference in the use of *and* and *és* is that in enumerations *and* is always inserted before the last item in the list; *és* is often omitted in Hungarian:

Vettem kenyeret vajat, sajtot. – I bought bread, butter, ***and*** *cheese.*

Although not a conjunction, the Hungarian particle *is* will be mentioned here. Hungarian learners usually grapple with the dilemma of choosing between *also* and *too.* As a matter of fact, often the solution is to use neither (Aradi 2010):

Az utasokat eligazító információs rendszer felmondta a szolgálatot, és sokáig tartott a csomagokhoz jutás is.

The flight information display system broke down and it took a long time to get your luggage.

9.5.3 Hungarian–English contrasts in cohesive devices: Ellipsis

Ellipsis means omitting certain elements from a sentence. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) ellipsis is zero substitution. Like substitution, it is a cohesive device: grammatical competence makes speakers aware that something is missing and prompts them to search for an antecedent in preceding (or following) discourse. Like substitution, it is usually anaphoric, and much less frequently cataphoric:

Can you dance? – No, I can't Ø.	(anaphoric reference to *dance*)
He is fond of Ø and interested in music.	(cataphoric reference to *music*)

9.5.3.1 Grammatical ellipsis

Grammatical ellipsis means omission of grammatically obligatory elements. Such sentences, if viewed on their own, are grammatically incomplete.

How are you? – Just fine.

Where are you off to? – To the library.

Omitted elements can be recovered

- on the basis of knowledge of syntactic rules (structural ellipsis);
- from previous parts of the sentence or previous sentences (textual ellipsis)
- from the situation (situational ellipsis)

Grammatical ellipsis plays an important role in organising texts. The rules for ellipsis show crosslinguistic variation and must be acquired by learners of English as a foreign language. For instance, there is considerable difference between English and Hungarian in giving short answers, as exemplified by the following Hungarian nursery rhyme and its English translation:

Voltál kertben?	*Voltam.*	*Have you been to the garden?*	*(Yes,) I have.*
Láttál farkast?	*Láttam.*	*Did you see a wolf?*	*(Yes,) I did.*
Féltél tőle?	*Féltem.*	*Were you afraid of it?*	*(Yes,) I was.*

The learning task is considerable: the learner must learn to operate the various auxiliaries in English short answers, and this takes some time. L1 interference may occur: Hungarians may respond with a curt *Yes/No*, or may repeat the verb or the whole clause:

Has he arrived? – *Yes. (?) *Yes, arrived. Yes, he has arrived. (?)*[67]

In other cases learners try to remain on the safe side by avoiding ellipsis where it would be possible in English:

The doctor examined him and [he] advised him to take more exercise.
Lenina took two half-gramme tablets and Henry [took] three [half-gramme tablets].

Interference of this type may be classed as covert error: the sentence is grammatically correct, but the redundant elements make it less natural, less native-like.

9.5.3.2 Semantic ellipsis

Ellipsis, in Halliday and Hasan's model, is seen as grammatical ellipsis, i.e. the omission of an obligatory element. However, items necessary for the interpretation of the meaning of a lexical item, a phrase or a sentence may be missing from grammatically well-formed sentences, too. Consider this sentence:

I saw a man with a wooden leg crossing the street.

Does this mean that I saw a man walking on a prosthetic leg or a man carrying a wooden leg in his arms?

The sentence is grammatically complete, generated according to the rules of English grammar. Semantically, however, it is not quite complete: some important meaning components have been left unexpressed, leaving interpretation open to some ambiguity. It is semantically elliptical, i.e. not fully explicit (Heltai 2008).

[67] Possible, but in most cases dispreferred answers.

We do not often notice semantic ellipsis, because semantically elliptical items and sentences usually have a conventional interpretation based on cultural knowledge. Thus, e.g., in the case of *a man with a wooden leg,* our experience tells us that it refers to 'a man walking on a prosthetic leg' rather than 'a man carrying a prosthetic leg'. Prepositional phrase postmodifiers in English are usually elliptical in this way, and their Hungarian correspondents often contain the ellipted element see Chapter 5.8):

his speech at the meeting on January 15th – a január 15-i ülésen tartott/mondott beszéde

In a similar way, in the case of *object-deleting verbs* the missing object is recoverable from cultural knowledge, without reference to the immediate situational context:

I have already eaten implies that *I have already eaten food.*

He drinks implies that *He drinks alcoholic drinks* (and too often and too much).

Deletion of the infinitive/gerund is common after certain transitive verbs (Andor 1998):

I enjoyed the book means *I enjoyed reading the book.*

Deletion of the instrument and other non-obligatory arguments of the verb is also common (Korponay 2001):

Which hand do you write with? means *In which hand do you hold the pen/pencil you write with?*

Semantic ellipsis is present in certain types of lexical items and phrases, too:

- Noun compounds: *tomato salad* is 'salad made from tomatoes', but *Greek salad* is not made from Greeks, and *Waldorf salad* is not made from Waldorfs. (This phenomenon is referred to in Hungarian linguistics as 'jelentéssűrítés'.)
- Disjuncts: *Frankly, I do not understand* (⇒ *If I speak frankly, I must say that I do not understand.*
- Non-inherent adjectives: an *angry letter* is not angry, but the person who wrote it is angry; *low nicotine smokers* means 'people smoking low nicotine content cigarettes.'
- Adjectives often juxtaposed with certain nouns may stand for the whole phrase: a *mental* may be a 'mental case', and *commercial* stands for 'commercial advertisement' (Szilágyi 1997).

There may be differences between L1 and L2 in semantic ellipsis. In cases of mismatch, addition of the missing element may be needed in translation (Heltai 2008):

Ellipsis in English	**No Ellipsis in Hungarian**
royal news	*hírek a királyi* ***családról***
informed consent	(**előzetes** tájékoztatáson **alapuló**) *beleegyező* ***nyilatkozat***

Ellipsis in Hungarian	**No Ellipsis in English**
karambolos javítás	*repair of crashed* ***cars***
Vácott ült.	*He sat* ***in prison*** *in Vác.*

9.5.3.3 Pragmatic ellipsis

In all languages, situationally redundant information is usually left unexpressed: it is inferred by the listener. We may call such omissions *pragmatic ellipsis.* The difference between semantic and pragmatic ellipsis is that the former is context-free, while the latter is context-bound. Consider the following examples:

I have already eaten. (semantically elliptical; even without context it means that ‘I have eaten some food’)
Last week I began a new book. (pragmatically elliptical: it may mean, depending on context, ‘I began to read a new book’ or ‘I began to write a new book’)

We shall come back to the topic of ellipsis in Chapter 11 (*Linguistic Contrasts in Hungarian–English Translation*).

9.5.4 Hungarian–English contrasts in cohesive devices: lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion relies on repetition: exact repetition, partial repetition and substitution by synonyms, hyponyms or superordinate terms. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), collocations may also provide cohesive links.

The differences observed in the use of lexical cohesive devices include the following.

- English is more tolerant of exact repetition. In scientific texts exact repetition is preferred to using synonyms.
- Partial repetition is more common in English than full repetition. An extended noun phrase is often reduced to the head noun in English.

9.6 The role of background knowledge in creating text coherence

Cohesive ties in themselves may not be sufficient to create a coherent text. The participants in a conversation or the reader of a text must have the necessary background knowledge if they want to interpret the text as a coherent piece of discourse. In this way, coherence depends on the hearer/reader's background knowledge, or to use a more comprehensive term, *cognitive environment*.

Speakers of different languages have different cognitive environments. The effects of such differences are best observed in translating. Therefore, we shall come back to this topic in Chapter 11.

Here we shall illustrate the role of background knowledge with two examples. Without background knowledge and knowledge of the situation, the following two texts are rather difficult to interpret.

A. – *Any luck?*
– *Got some.*
– *Nice ones?*
– *Beauties.*

This conversation is highly elliptical, yet the two participants (two anglers) have no difficulty in understanding each other. However, it may be unintelligible for someone outside the situation.

B. *Just as the eighth century prophets left their little villages and carried their "thus saith the Lord" far beyond the boundaries of their home towns; and just as the Apostle Paul left his little village of Tarsus and carried the gospel of Jesus Christ to practically every hamlet and city of the Graeco-Roman world, I too am compelled to carry the gospel of freedom beyond my particular home town. Like Paul, I must constantly respond to the Macedonian call for aid.*

Moreover, I am cognizant of the interrelatedness of all communities and states. I cannot sit idly by in Atlanta and not be concerned about what happens in Birmingham. Injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere. We are caught in an inescapable network of mutuality, tied in a single gourmet of destiny. Whatever affects one directly affects all indirectly.

Never again can we afford to live with the narrow, provincial "outside agitator" idea. Anyone who lives inside the United States can never be considered an outsider anywhere in his country.

Interpretation becomes a bit easier if we know that this is an extract from a letter by Martin Luther King to fellow clergymen (the famous *Letter from*

Birmingham Jail[68]*)*; it also helps if you are familiar with the Bible, and most importantly, the particular historical situation at the time of the American Civil Rights Movement.

9.6.1 Schemata and inferences

Knowledge about the world (including cultural knowledge) is organised in the minds of people into *schemata* (singular form: *schema*) or scenarios: mental representations of typical situations and sequences of events. Those who belong to English or Hungarian culture will have schemata for 'at the dentist' 'in a restaurant' etc. They will also have schemata for 'Christmas' and 'New Year's Eve', although these schemata – due to the different cultural background – will slightly be different.

On the basis of schemata information not expressed verbally in the text can be obtained through the process of inferencing. Therefore, a lot of information relevant in a situation is not expressed verbally: it will be understood by members of the same culture. Consider the following sentences:

Szilveszter este szegény Anna vizsgára készült.
– On New Year's Eve poor Ann was preparing for an exam.
A repülőgép leszállt. A kapitány elköszönt azt utasoktól.
– The aircraft landed. The captain said goodbye to the passengers.

Why do we say *poor Ann*? Obviously because – having the cultural schema for *New Year's Eve* – we know that New Year's Eve is a time of merriment, parties, champagne and so on, and – having the schema for *preparing for an exam* – we also know that preparing for an exam is hard work, made even harder by the fact that everyone else is making merry. In the second sentence of the second pair the word *captain* is introduced as given information (*the captain*), since *captain* is part of the *aircraft* schema.

In cross-cultural communication differences in schemata and understanding information that goes without saying may cause difficulties. This underlines the importance of studying the cultural background in L2 learning. It is also an important factor in translation (see Chapter 11).

9.6.2 Bottom-up and top-down processing

In interpreting texts, we can proceed in two ways. We can start from the 'bottom' (sounds, grammar and words), and build from the bottom up the

[68] See e.g., https://www.africa.upenn.edu/Articles_Gen/Letter_Birmingham.html

composite meaning for the sentence, or from the 'top' (social relationships: who is talking to whom, world knowledge, discourse [text] type, context, discourse function, pragmatic knowledge) and work down to word and sound level (Brown and Yule, 1983).

Both processes work simultaneously. Top-down processing helps the listener/reader to predict discourse content and linguistic forms. Key words in a text may evoke conceptual frames, i.e. activate relevant background knowledge for the interpretation of a text (Andor, 2019), generating expectations. As a matter of fact, understanding texts relies on expectations (expectation-driven understanding). In listening comprehension expectations may be so strong that sometimes we hear what we expect to hear instead of what is said. If we have no expectations, it tends to be more difficult to understand what is said on the basis of the sound segments alone.

9.7 Presenting and arranging information in sentences: word order, focus and emphasis

Issues of word order, focus and emphasis lie at the intersection of grammar and text linguistics because *discourse factors* are important in understanding the grammatical choices that influence word order. This section will describe the syntactic structures in English whose use is governed by the connection of a sentence with other sentences in its immediate neighbourhood, depending on *theme and focus* and *given and new information* respectively. General differences between English and Hungarian will be noted, based mainly on observation and teaching experience. The reader may also refer to Chapter 18 of *A Student's Grammar of English* by Greenbaum & Quirk (1990).

Consider the following pair of sentences:

The noise of teacups came from the dining-room.
From the dining-room came the noise of teacups.

Do these sentences have the same meaning? Yes and no: they describe the same situation, but the way information is arranged and presented is different, because it depends on previous and subsequent sentences. Thus, we can say that their *thematic meaning* is different.

9.7.1 Given and new information

The information flow in a sentence tends to follow a certain pattern. In most cases sentences contain both given and new information. We usually *focus on*

new information. Most sentences start with a topic (also referred to as theme) which expresses given information, followed by a focus, which expresses new information. Focus may be indicated by word order, sentence stress and intonation. New information in English may be just one word, the last content word, or several words at the *end* of the clause, or even a whole clause. Ambiguity is resolved by intonation and/or context.

The Queen celebrates two birthdays each year.	(The whole sentence is new information)
Her actual birthday is on 21 April.	(*on 21 April* is new information)

Given information is often expressed by pronouns or is ellipted.

Need any more? ('Do you need any more?')	*Kell még?*
A man came out of the house. I greeted him.	*Egy férfi jött ki a házból. Üdvözöltem.*

9.7.2 Word order in English

The basic word order in English is SVO (subject-verb-object). English is *a subject-prominent language:* the subject, in most cases, is the topic and expresses given information.

The hunter shot the wolf.
given ⟷ *new*

9.7.3 Word order in Hungarian

Hungarian is a *topic-prominent language,* in which both the SVO and the SOV word orders may occur. The topic expresses given information, but it is not necessarily the subject:

A *vadász lelőtte a farkast. A farkast lelőtte a vadász.*
given ⟷ *new* *given* ⟷ *new*

Hungarian word order is relatively free, and it can move various parts of the sentence to initial (topic) position. However, it is not completely free: it depends on what we regard as the topic (given information) and what we regard as new information to be focused on.

9.7.4 Focus and emphasis in English

In English, the *focus t*ypically occurs on the last lexical item of the clause and tends to express new information. This feature is called *the principle of end-focus*. The initial part of the sentence that contains given information is referred to as the *theme.*

The hunter shot ***the wolf.***
given ⟷ *new*
theme ⟷ *focus*

9.7.5 Focus and emphasis in Hungarian

In Hungarian, the focus is on the element *before the verb.* This may be indicated by moving the verbal prefix ('igekötő') to postverbal position:

Megérkezett a gólya.	*– Elsőnek a gólya érkezett meg.*
Fáradt voltam, ezért lefeküdtem.	*– Fáradt voltam, ezért feküdtem le.*

9.7.6 Variations in focus and emphasis in Hungarian

Variations in focus and emphasis are signalled by variations in word order (moving the item focused on to preverbal position), intonation and stress.

Péter tegnap este megivott egy üveg sört.
Péter tegnap este ivott meg egy üveg sört.
Péter egy üveg sört ivott meg tegnap este.
Péter ivott meg egy üveg sört tegnap este.

These sentences report on the same event, but focus on different parts of the message, provide answers to different questions, present different parts of the sentence as new information and fit into different contexts. In one word, we may say that they have different *thematic meanings.*

9.7.7 Variations in focus and emphasis in English

Variations in focus and emphasis in English are signalled by word order changes or special lexical or grammatical devices. The grammatical devices used to manipulate focus in English are the following: clefting, use of the

passive, fronting, inversion of subjects and verbs, extraposition and structural compensation.

9.7.7.1 Clefting

In the sentence *Charlie came to our town on a Monday morning* the last element (*on a Monday morning*) is in focus. However, since this is the usual, neutral place of the focus, it is not very emphatic. Therefore, if we want to give it special emphasis, we can use a cleft construction:

It was on a Monday morning that Charlie came to our town.

This sentence has a double focus: the stronger one is in the first clause (*on a Monday morning*). In this way, if we want to give special emphasis to an element or highlight a contrast, we may use a cleft sentence:

Her voice held me.	*It was her voice that held me.*
I admired her voice.	*It was her voice that I admired.*
I awoke only at 9.	*It was only at 9 that I awoke.*
They first met in London.	*It was in London that they first met.*

Reaching intermediate level, Hungarian learners get used to English word order. They learn that it is fixed (SVO), and so they will tend to follow the SVO word order even where a cleft sentence would be desirable:

Péter megitta az összes sört. – Peter drank all the beer.
Péter itta meg az összes sört. – Peter drank all the beer. (?)[69]

In translating into English, learners may not identify the elements that have special emphasis and should be highlighted by clefting:

Csak késő este értünk haza.	*– We got home only late in the evening. (?)*
	– It was only late in the evening that we got home.

On the other hand, Hungarian learners tend to overuse the emphatic construction *that's why.* E.g., in the following sentence there is no emphasis on *ezért,* so the use of *that's why* is misleading (a covert error):

Későre járt, ezért lefeküdtünk. – It was getting late, ? that's why we went to bed.

[69] The question mark indicates that the English translation may not convey the emphasis found in the Hungarian sentence.

Actually, this sentence corresponds to the following Hungarian sentence:

Későre járt, ezért feküdtünk le.

Consider one more example:

A minta nedves volt, ezért szárítani kellett. (No special emphasis *on ezért.*)
The sample was wet, therefore we had to dry it.

Translating this sentence with *that's why* (**The sample was wet, that's why we had to dry it*) is grammatically correct, but not quite what the speaker/writer means (a covert error). It corresponds to the following Hungarian sentence (note the difference in word order):

A minta nedves volt, ezért kellett szárítani.

It should also be noted that *that's why* belongs to informal style. Its use in formal, scientific registers is altogether inappropriate; *thus, therefore, for this reason, this was the reason why* would be preferred.

9.7.7.2 The Passive

As described in 4.1.4, the so-called long passive is often used in English to give end focus to the agent. This is in agreement with the principles of *end focus* and *end-weight:* the elements that are focused on have final position, and if the agent is expressed by a heavy, lengthy ('weighty') phrase or clause it will tend to contain new information and will tend to be placed at the end, where it does not hold up the processing of the rest of the clause (Greenbaum and Quirk 1990), as in the following example.

Abraham Lincoln, the 16th president of the United States, was assassinated by Confederate sympathiser John Wilkes Booth, a well-known actor.

9.7.7.3 Fronting

Although word order in English is more or less fixed, there is some limited possibility for moving some element other than the subject to front position. In this case we have double focus in the sentence: in addition to the last word, the fronted element also receives some prominence.

Ezt nem értem. – *I don't understand this.*

EZT nem értem. (Ezt held out long) – *This I don't understand.*
Ez az amit nem értek. – *It is this that I don't understand.*
Fejlődés (az) valóban volt. – *Development there has been.*
Az apját (azt) gyűlölte. – *His father he hated.*
Ott ült az asztálnál a nővérem, Flóra. – *Sitting at her desk was my sister Flora.*
Különösen figyelemreméltó volt az ovális arca. – *Especially remarkable was her oval face.*

It is interesting to note that fronting, although it results in a word order similar to Hungarian, is underused by Hungarian learners of English. This has to do with the order of learning: since Hungarian learners learn early on that in English a SVO word order must be used, they avoid experimenting with other word orders.

9.7.7.4 Inversion of subject and verb

In a similar way, Hungarian learners tend to follow the canonical SVO word order in English in cases where English uses inverted word order:

Soha nem mutatta, hogy szeret.
Never has he shown any signs of love.

Ha jobban ismertem volna, nem bíztam volna meg benne.
Had I known him better, I wouldn't have trusted him.

Ha esetleg valami gond van vele, csak telefonálj nekem.
Should you have any trouble with it, just phone me.

Alighogy beléptem, máris nekem estek.
No sooner had I entered, than they came down on me.

9.7.7.5 Extraposition

In extraposition a subject or object clause is extraposed to the end of the sentence. This is in agreement with the principle of end weight. Extraposition may result in a word order that is similar to Hungarian, so it does not seem to create a significant learning difficulty for Hungarian learners.

Biztos, hogy veszítettünk. – *That we have lost is certain.*
⇒ *It is certain that we have lost.*
Nyelvtant tanulni öröm. – *To study grammar is a pleasure.*
⇒ *It is a pleasure to study grammar.*

9.7.7.6 Structural compensation

Structural compensation, the use of a delexical verb + a noun instead of a simple verb (described in Chapter 4.4) is also related to the issue of information flow. In English sentences there is usually a gradual progression from low to high communicative dynamism, from given to new information. To preserve this pattern, there is a tendency in English to use verb+noun constructions instead of simple verbs. This is especially common in written styles:

Jing Xiaoyuan, a helyi obszervatórium csillagásza nem tudta megmagyarázni a jelenséget.
A. *Jing Xiaoyuan, an astronomer at the local observatory, could not explain the phenomenon.*
B. *Jing Xiaoyuan, an astronomer at the local observatory, could not offer an explanation.*

Both translations are acceptable, but B. sounds more balanced, and would be preferred in formal written style.

9.8 ORDER OF ADVERBIALS

The place of adverbials is relatively free in English: time, place and manner adverbials may have initial and end position. If there are several different adverbials in a sentence, their usual, neutral order is *mood, place* and *time.* This order may be changed if we want to give end focus to mood or place:

Hétfőn a 301-esben találkozunk. – *We'll meet on Monday in Room 301.*
A 301-esben hétfőn találkozunk. – *We'll meet in room 301 on Monday.*

If there are several time or place adverbials in a sentence, their usual, neutral order is from smaller place/time to larger place/time, exemplified by the order of the elements in one's home address and date of birth. In English, it is just the opposite of the Hungarian word order, which may lead to some interference:

2005. június 8-án született. – *He was born on the 8th of June in 2005.*
Budapesten, a Fő utca 9-ben lakik. – *He lives at 9 High Street, Budapest.*

Again, this neutral word order may be changed if we want to give special emphasis to the smaller place or time by giving it end focus:

He was born in June 2005, on the eighth.

9.9 Indirect object

It is well-known that in English we can express the indirect object in two ways: either immediately after the verb or in final position with the preposition *to* or *for*:

I bought the children some sweets.
I bought some sweets for the children.

These two constructions are not freely interchangeable: their use depends on which element we want to emphasise by giving it end focus.

Egy pár új cipőt vettem Johnnak. (nem szandált)
– I bought John a new pair of shoes.

Johnnak vettem egy pár új cipőt. (nem Frednek)
– I bought a new pair of shoes for John.

This difference in focus is often neglected by learners, and the two alternatives are treated as equivalent.

9.10 Registers and Genres

The linguistic features of different registers and genres in English have been extensively studied (e.g. Biber 1995). Examples of cross-linguistic analysis of registers and genres can also be found in the literature (e.g. Kunz and Steiner 2013, Kunz and Lapshinova 2015). However, comparisons of the features of English and Hungarian registers and genres are scarce. For this reason, register and genre are only mentioned here for the sake of completeness.

Register refers to "a variety of language distinguished according to use" (Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens, 1964: 89) that can be described in terms of field, mode, and tenor. Registers are typically associated with distinctive linguistic features, and research has uncovered a number of textual features specific to different registers (cf. Biber 1995). These include the distribution of grammatical features, register-specific collocations and the use of various discourse markers. For instance, the use of reference, substitution and ellipsis in the legal register is minimal, while synonyms are generally uncommon in scientific and technical texts.

Genres are socially recognised ways of using language. According to Swales,

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of

the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. [...] In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. (Swales 1990: 58)

According to this definition, a genre has a particular communicative purpose, employs particular conventionalised rhetorical elements sanctioned by the members of a discourse community. Examples of genres are research papers, abstracts, book reviews, blogs, cover letters, CVs, cooking recipes, etc.

9.11 Tasks

1. Discuss: Is this a text? Why (not)?

A usual working day[70]

Wake up,
Nokia, Colgate, Nescafe, Hochland, Orbit.
Renault, Compaq, Epson, Nokia, Nokia, Nokia.
McDonalds, Coca-Cola, Orbit.
Compaq, Epson, Nokia, Nokia, Nokia. Renault.
Tuborg, Tuborg, Tuborg, Tuborg.
Nokia.... Nokia.
Durex.
Colgate.

2. Is this a text? Why (not)? Can you find potential cohesive links in it?

Although he was of noble birth, Buddha was not proud and fond of luxury. He snuffed out his candle and settled down for a peaceful night's sleep. Several weeks elapsed and he still did not call. As his case was about to be called, he realised that his parking meter was running out, so he asked the judge for time to feed it. He knocked on a window of the offices of a television station and crawled in to safety. The priest continued to the end of the ceremony and then invited the happy couple to sign the register.

3. Discuss the progression of given and new information and the lexical cohesive links in the extract.

Rákosnak mezője tőszomszédos Pesttel,
Pest alatt ért össze utasunk az esttel.

[70] E.g. https://forum.pclab.pl/topic/33793-usual-working-day/ Last accessed 25.01.2022.

Találkoztak pedig egy temető mellett,
Temetőben új sír dombja sötétellett.
De miféle sírnak sötétlik ott dombja,
Arra Miklósnak most van is, nincs is gondja… (Arany: Toldi)

4. Discuss these sentences in terms of given and new information.

Enni ettem. Tisztelni tisztelem. Vanni van. Látni láttam.

5. Negate emphatically.

Napoleon defeated Kutuzov. (Kutuzov) ⇒ No, it was Kutuzov who/that defeated Napoleon.
Television was invented in the 1960s. (in the 1930s)
The X-ray machine was invented by Osypov. (Röntgen)
The last Olympic Games were held in Sydney. (Tokyo)
Most birds mate in the winter. (in the spring)

6. Make as many cleft sentences from the following sentences as you can.

Bill sold his car to Mary for ten thousand dollars.
They found a little wine in one of the teacups.

7. Translate.

Button az utolsó körben megelőzte Magnussent.
Button az utolsó körben előzte meg Magnussent. (overtake; lap)
Az utolsó körben Button előzte meg Magnussent.
Button az utolsó körben Magnussent előzte meg.

8. Read the text and identify the two places where a cleft sentence could/would be used if you were to translate it into English!

Tíz évvel a vasfüggöny leomlása után a csehek 25 százaléka beszél jól oroszul, míg angolul 16 százalékuk tud – derült ki a Fessel-GfK Austria felméréséből. Az oroszt manapság a szlovákok beszélik leginkább. Míg a szlovákok 29 százaléka jól megérteti magát az oroszokkal, addig a magyarok közt csak kétszázalékos az orosz nyelvet ismerők száma. Szlovákiában a lakosság 11 százaléka tud angolul, míg Oroszországban tíz százalék. A legrosszabbul a bolgárok és a magyarok végeztek, akik közül a felmérés szerint csupán kilenc, illetve hét százalék ismeri a legelterjedtebb világnyelvet.[71]

[71] Blikk, 05.03.1999.

9. Advertising language is highly elliptical. What elements have been ellipted in this text? On the basis of what can we understand it? What elements would be ellipted in a Hungarian ad?

General positions available   *Needed immediately for the president of international company. Mature male assistant secretary. Very high class fluent English and French. Excellent typist. Extensive experience a must. Much travel. Single absolutely straight. Good opportunity for career advancement. Excellent salary. The highest professional only apply. Send resume to PO Box 374, Geneva, Switzerland.*

10. Study the differences in the use of pronominal reference and ellipsis in this extract from Poe's *The Murders in the Rue Morgue*. Answer this question: are the ellipses in the English text matched by ellipses in the Hungarian translation?

"*Isidore Musèt, gendarme*, deposes that he was called to the house about three o'clock in the morning, and found some twenty or thirty persons at the gateway, endeavouring to gain admittance. **Forced** it open, at length, with a bayonet—not with a crowbar. **Had** but little difficulty in getting it open, on account of its being a double or folding gate, and bolted neither at bottom not top. The shrieks were continued until the gate was forced—and then suddenly **ceased**. They seemed to be screams of some person (or persons) in great agony—**were** loud and drawn out, not short and quick. **Witness** led the way upstairs. Upon reaching the first landing, **heard** two voices in loud and angry contention—the one a gruff voice, the other much shriller—a very strange voice. **Could** distinguish some words of the former, which was that of a Frenchman. **Was** positive that it was not a woman's voice. **Could** distinguish the words '*sacré*' and '*diable*.' The shrill voice was that of a foreigner. **Could** not be sure whether it was the voice of a man or of a woman. **Could** not make out what was said, but **believed** the language to be Spanish. The state of the room and of the bodies was described by this witness as we described them yesterday.	*Isidore Muset, zsandár,* azt vallja, hogy hajnali három óra felé hívták a házhoz. A kapunál húsz vagy harminc ember szorgoskodott, hogy bemehessen. A kaput végül szuronnyal és nem feszítővassal nyitotta ki. Nem volt nehéz munka, mert szárnyas, kettős kapuról van szó, amely sem alul, sem felül nem volt bereteszelve. Míg a kaput kifeszítették, bentről állandó sikoltozás hallatszott, de ez egyszerre megszűnt. Halálos veszélyben forgó személy (vagy személyek) kiáltozása volt ez, hangos és elnyújtott, nem rövid és szapora. Amint tanú felsietett a lépcsőn, az első emeletre érve hangos és dühös kiáltozás, kétféle hang ütötte meg a fülét. Az egyik durva, a másik sokkal rikácsolóbb – különös, idegenszerű hang. A durva hangnak néhány szavát meg tudta érteni, franciául beszélt. Bizonyos benne, hogy nem volt női hang. Az *átkozott* és *ördögbe* szavakat tisztán hallotta. A rikácsoló hang idegen nyelven beszélt. Nem tudja határozottan, női vagy férfihang volt-e. Az értelmét nem tudta kivenni, de azt hiszi, hogy spanyolul beszélt az illető. A szoba és a holttestek állapotát a tanú ugyanúgy írta le, mint tegnapi cikkünk.

11. Compare the Hungarian–English contrasts in cohesive devices in these texts. What problem does the 3rd person pronoun he cause in the translation?

BEN *(slamming his paper down).* Kaw!	
GUS. What's that?	Mi az?
BEN A child of eight killed a cat!	Egy nyolcéves kis vakarcs megölt egy macskát.
GUS. Get away.	Menj a fenébe.
BEN. It's a fact. What about that, eh? A child of eight killing a cat!	De ha mondom. Na, ehhez mit szólsz? Nyolcéves kis vakarcs, és megöl egy macskát!
GUS. How did he do it?	És hogy csinálta a srác?
BEN. It was a girl.	Nem srác volt. Lány.
GUS. How did she do it?	Mégis, hogy csinálta?
BEN. She –	
He picks up the paper and studies it.	(*felveszi az újságot*)
It doesn't say.	Hát … Nem áll itt.
GUS. Why not?	Hogyhogy?
BEN. Wait a minute. It just says – Her brother, aged eleven, viewed the incident from the toolshed.	Várj egy kicsit. Annyi áll itt, hogy … a bátyja, aki tizenegy éves, végignézte az egészet a fészerből.
GUS. Go on!	Nahát!
BEN. That's bloody ridiculous.	Tiszta röhej, mi?
Pause.	*Szünet*
GUS. I bet he did it.	Megesküdnék, hogy a srác volt.
BEN. Who?	Kicsoda?
GUS. The brother.	A bátyja.
BEN. I think you're right.	Biztos igazad van.
(Harold Pinter: The Dumb Waiter)	(Harold Pinter: Az ételllift)

12. In the following newspaper article we find ellipsis in the first five sentences. Does it contribute to text coherence? Are these ellipses anaphoric, cataphoric or exophoric? Based on the content of the article, what word was ellipted?

Can you translate into Hungarian the first five sentences?

Ponting was. Cathy Messiter almost certainly won't be. Williams was. The Observer may or may not be. Lord Lewin probably won't be. Yes, the Official Secrets Act is in a right old muddle at the moment. And yet the one person in the last three years to have passed on a real secret got away with a mild ticking off.

The person in question was a Wren stationed at Northwood, the headquarters of naval operations, during the Falklands war. The Wren was overheard by a colleague telling a friend in a pub the date troops would be landing at San Carlos, the crucial first invasion of the Falklands fighting.

Now this really was a secret – the sort that could lose lives. The matter was referred to the attention of both the Director of Public Prosecutions and the Attorney-General,

even though they do not have direct jurisdiction in military matters. The law officers advised that she should be sacked. But then her former boss – a high-ranking Marine – intervened and spoke up for her. Thereupon the girl was given her job back with a disapproving pat on the head.

The Ministry of Defence refused to comment on the incident yesterday.[72]

13. Look at this extract. What has been ellipted in the last line?

Talking of the butter for
The royal slice of bread,
Many people
Think that
Marmalade
Is nicer.[73]

14. Translate.

He is fond ***of*** *and interested* ***in*** *music.*
He showed a surprising sensitivity to and understanding of the inhabitants of the island.
Mary got her first taste of competition at 11, when she ***ran in*** *– and* ***won*** *– a cross-country race.*
The new minister is widely respected for his knowledge ***of,*** *and interest* ***in,*** *the agricultural industry.*
Europeans showed no understanding ***of*** *– and little mercy* ***for*** *– the "noble savages" of Tahiti.*

15. Discuss the following questions.

What kind of errors can be expected in the case of ellipsis in short answers? Overt or covert?
What other factors outside L1 contribute to errors in ellipsis?
Does positive transfer occur in ellipsis? Does avoidance occur?

16. Where does this conversation take place? Who are the participants? What is needed for the interpretation of this text? Discuss the questions below.

A. *Go ahead, Sierra Fox 153.*
B. *Sierra Fox 153, stand Bravo 5, information Juliet, request start-up for Athens.*
A. *Sierra Fox 153, start-up approved.*
B. *Starting up, Sierra Fox 153.*[74]

[72] The Observer, 19. November, 1985.
[73] *The King's breakfast,* by A. A. Milne.
[74] Robertson, F. A. 1987. *Airspeak. Radiotelephony Communication for Pilots,* New York, Prentice Hall.

Questions for discussion:

- What is the purpose of this conversation?
- In what ways is it different from ordinary conversation?
- What does *Sierra Fox 153* mean? Why is it repeated in each line?
- What can *stand Bravo 5* mean?
- Why does this conversation strike us as both repetitive and elliptical?
- Why do the participants not use the simple words *yes* and *no*?
- How polite are they?
- Who has the authority to give instructions?
- How does the pilot interpret the messages of the tower as information, advice or instruction?
- What is the name of this register?

17. Read this sentence and discuss top-down and bottom-up processing.

Egy anlgaii etegyem ktuasátai szenirt nem száímt melyin serenrodbn vnanak a bteük egy szbóan, az etegyeln ftonos dloog, hogy az eslő és az ultosó bteük a hölyeükn lneegyek. A tböbi bteü lheet tljees összevabisszásagn, mgiés porbléma nlkéül oalvsahtó a szveög. Eennk oka, hogy nem ovalusnk el mniedn bteüt mgaát, hneam a szót eszgébéen.

18. What registers are mixed together in the following extract to achieve a humorous effect? Translate the passage into Hungarian.

Alfred of the Advertisements – *A Romance of the Back Pages*

The earliest recollections of Alfred Ellicott, whose life forms the subject of this chronicle, were of his family home in New England on the banks of the Stickemupabit, a stream noted to-day for its attraction to tourists, being within easy motor ride from both New York and Boston and reached also by the Boston and Maine Railway, whose admirable dining car service makes access to the district and egress from it a sustained pleasure and which welcomes any complaint from its patrons in regard to the incivility of its employees. Here Alfred passed his boyhood. The house in which he lived was a typical colonial mansion, known in the neighbourhood as The "Ads": It was built in the colonial style (See booklet) with a tall portico and wide sloping roof shingled everywhere with the new LAY-EASY shingles, the principal advantage in which is represented by reducing labour cost, two men being able easily to lay three squares (30 x 10 ft.) in one morning. In fact these are the shingles of which Mr. P. O. Woodhead (see insert), the well-known builder of Potsdam, New Hampshire, has said in his impressive way "They reduce cost."

Here Alfred spent a solitary boyhood, his time spent largely in reverie and day dreams. When not able to sleep naturally he found that two grains of SLEEP-TIGHT inhaled up his nose brought on a delightful slumber from which he awoke completely refreshed at fifty cents a packet. (By Stephen Leacock)

Chapter 10

HUNGARIAN–ENGLISH PRAGMATIC CONTRASTS

10.1 Preview

> *Would you like to come and sit down?*
> What does this question mean? What does it do? Is it an invitation, a request, or an order?

10.2 Recapitulation of pragmatics

Since some of the prospective users of this book may not have had a course in pragmatics, it may be useful to start this section with a recapitulation of the most important principles of pragmatics.

Pragmatics deals with *utterance* meaning in context, i.e. the actual realisation of a sentence used for communicating. Interpretation of utterance meaning is based on

- semantic meaning (literal, context-free meaning),
- context: place and time of communication,
- users:
    - relation between speaker and hearer,
    - communicative purposes of users,
    - world knowledge (cognitive environment) of users.

Pragmatics can be divided into two broad areas: *pragmalinguistics,* related to language, i.e. the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular pragmatic meanings, and *sociopragmatics,* related to social relations, i.e. aspects of language use that relate to everyday social practices (Leech 1983).

The most important areas of pragmatics are speech act theory, the Cooperative Principle, deixis and reference, coded and inferential communication, politeness theories and pragmatic markers. For foreign language learning, cross-cultural pragmatics and research on the acquisition of pragmatic competence are important subfields.

10.3 Speech act theory

Speech act theory (Austin 1962) maintains that every utterance performs an act: in saying anything one is performing some kind of act – a speech act. For example, by uttering the sentence *Would you like some tea?* we perform an act, the act of *offering*. We give an *order* by saying something (*Stand to attention!*) and we *promise* something by saying something (*I'll be back in five minutes*).

10.3.1 Explicit performatives

Speech acts are explicitly named by performative verbs: *I warn you that I'm not very good at chess* performs the act of warning, and *I advise you to see a dentist* performs the act of giving advice. There is no performative verb for every speech act: we cannot *threaten* or *insult* somebody by saying **I hereby threaten you* or ** I hereby insult you*, and explicit performatives are not always used where they could be used. As a result, utterances are often *ambiguous*: their linguistic form does not betray what speech act they perform. E.g., *I'll come back tomorrow* may be a promise or a threat; *Would you like to come and sit down?* could be an invitation, a request for information, a request for action or an order. The *pragmatic force* of most utterances can be interpreted only on the basis of context, but many utterances (especially indirect speech acts and loose uses of language) are ambivalent even in context. An explicit performative verb, like *promise* (*I promise I'll come back tomorrow*) may be used by the speaker to *disambiguate* pragmatic force.

10.3.2 Indirect speech acts

Most speech acts are associated with certain grammatical forms. For example, *orders* are associated with the imperative; *requests for information* are associated with interrogative sentences. In the case of *direct speech acts* the most likely ('default') interpretation is applicable. *Indirect speech* acts are performed by using a linguistic form that deviates from the grammatical form usually associated with that speech act. Interrogative sentences, for example, may be used to make a request or to give orders (*Could you help me? Will you stop making that noise?*)

Indirect speech acts are closely related to politeness: an indirect order is usually less imposing and more polite than a direct one. Compare:

Pass the salt. – *Can you pass the salt, please?*

10.4 The Cooperative Principle

Grice (1975) proposed that human communication is based on cooperation: speakers and hearers understand each other because they follow the Cooperative Principle. This principle includes four maxims:

- **Quantity:** Be informative. Make your contribution as informative as needed; make it no more informative than needed.
- **Quality:** Be truthful. Do not say what you believe is false; do not say anything for which you lack good evidence.
- **Relevance:** Be relevant. Say things that are relevant to the discussion.
- **Manner:** Be clear. Avoid obscurity of expression; avoid ambiguity; be brief; be orderly.

Speakers usually comply with these maxims. If they deliberately violate them ('flout a maxim'), hearers will draw *inferences* from the violation. E.g., the utterance *You are my sunshine, my only sunshine* violates the maxim of quality: strictly speaking, it is not true. No human being can be sunshine. The inference that we can draw is that the speaker likes or loves the addressee and needs him/her in the way he/she needs sunshine.

10.5 Deixis and Reference

Consider this extract from a theatre play.

DENNIS: *That goes in <u>there</u> ... and then <u>that one</u> goes ... through <u>there</u> to <u>that one</u> ...which should join up with <u>the other one</u>. In which case ...*

VERA: *Dennis....Dennis.*

DENNIS: *But in that case, <u>that one</u> ... should be joined to <u>that one</u>... Hallo... unless that's the earth. In which case, it's <u>that one</u>.*

VERA: *Dennis.*

DENNIS: *Come in. On the other hand, if <u>that</u>'s the earth, which one is the live one?*[75]

What is Dennis talking about? The extract shows that a large part of meaning comes from context. Deictic words (*that, that one, there*) have no meaning in themselves: they can only be interpreted by reference to the context. Identifying the reference of deictic words also involves inferencing.

[75] Ayckburn, A. 1979. *Joking apart,* London, Samuel French.

10.6 Coded and Inferential Communication

Communication is only partly coded: we do not express in coded (verbal) form everything that we mean (see also sections 9.10 and 9.12). A large part of communication is **inferential**: we draw inferences from the context – from the coded utterance, from previous discourse and our knowledge of the world. In this way, **we always communicate more than what we say.** Consider this example:

You are visiting a friend. His two sons, aged around 8 to 10, come in, and very soon start fighting. You say: *Boys will be boys.*

What do you mean? How will your friend interpret your remark – what inferences will he draw?

10.7 Politeness

Leech (1983) proposed the *Politeness Principle,* consisting of several maxims: the Tact Maxim (The speaker minimises the cost and maximises the benefit to the listener), the Generosity Maxim (the speaker minimises the benefit and maximises the cost to herself[76]), the Approbation Maxim (the speaker minimises dispraise and maximises praise of the listener), the Modesty Maxim (the speaker minimises praise and maximises dispraise of herself), the Agreement Maxim (the speaker minimises disagreement and maximises agreement between herself and the listener) and the Sympathy Maxim (the speaker minimises antipathy and maximises sympathy between herself and the listener). To put it into plain language, it is more polite to agree than to disagree and to be modest and praise other people than to praise yourself. Politeness is often expressed through formulaic language and indirect speech acts.

There can be clashes between Grice's conversational maxims and Leech's politeness maxims, which explains why people do not always follow Grice's Cooperative Principle. It is difficult to be both truthful and tactful, and it is difficult to be both truthful and modest (see the problem of compliment responses in section 10.9).

[76] Leech (1983) uses the pronouns *she, her* and *herself* to refer to both sexes.

10.8 Pragmatic markers

An area of pragmatics that has received substantial attention in recent years is the study of pragmatic markers (PM)[77]. Pragmatic markers are items that have little propositional meaning, but may have a variety of functions in (particularly oral) communication, related mostly to expressing attitudes. Syntactically they are not integrated with the rest of the sentence, and they can be omitted without loss of propositional meaning, as shown by the example below.

Who is this man? – Well, I hardly know. I mean I've meet him only once.

The items *well*, and *I mean* could be omitted without loss of informative content. However, they signal important attitudinal meanings, whose interpretation heavily depends on context.

Common PMs in English are *well, I mean, you know (y'know), actually, as a matter of fact, anyway, whatever, like, after all, mind you, you bet, in other words, in any event, otherwise, incidentally,* etc. Common Hungarian PMs include *hát, hiszen, mellesleg, szóval, más szóval, tulajdonképpen, vajon, végül is, ugyanis, persze* etc.

Furkó and Mónos (2013: 137) summarize the functions of PMs as follows.

> PMs are used by native speakers consistently and with great precision in order to achieve a wide range of functions. They are used as frames in the interaction, for example to make it easier for the hearer to understand how the different units of the discourse are related; PMs can serve to express solidarity between interlocutors and as such can function as positive politeness devices; PMs can increase or decrease the force of an utterance and, accordingly, can be used as hedges or boosters; they mark backgrounded / foregrounded information in the case of narratives, quotes or lists; alternatively, PMs can be used to simply signal that the speaker needs more time to formulate a response or to process the information that was recently made available.

Pragmatic competence includes the ability to use PMs appropriately. This ability acquires importance at the advanced level: incorrect use or non-use of PMs may lead to misunderstanding of the speaker's attitude, or may sound impolite, or may just betray that the speaker is nonnative. The reasons why it is difficult to acquire pragmatic competence with respect to PMs are the following.

[77] The term *pragmatic marker* and *discourse marker* are used more or less synonymously. Issues of terminology, problems of classification and delimiting the scope of pragmatic/discourse markers will not be discussed in this short summary.

- Inherent difficulty of PMs: underspecification of meaning, polyfunctionality, polyfunctionality, context dependency;
- Lack of appropriate input in teaching materials;
- Interlingual differences (L1–L2 contrasts): as a matter of fact, it is impossible to find one-to-one correspondences between PMs in two different languages. There may be

  – partial equivalence (which may lead to false interlingual identification of L1 PMs with L2 PMs): e.g., Hungarian *hiszen* may be identified with English *because*, although it may correspond to a number of English PMs (*because, but, after all*, etc.);
  – total absence of a PM in either L1 or L2: e.g., Hungarian *bezzeg* has not got even a near-equivalent in English.

10.9 Cross-cultural pragmatics

Preview: What would you say in the following situations? Write down your answers and discuss them with others in the class.
You borrowed a book from a friend in your class and you forget to bring it back when you are supposed to return it. How would you apologise?

You accidentally bump into a well-dressed elderly lady in an elegant department store, causing her to spill her packages all over the floor. You hurt her leg too. It's clearly your fault and you want to apologise. You say: …

At a restaurant you change your mind after the food has already been served. You want to apologise and change the order. What would you say? …

Research on pragmatic contrasts among languages started in the last quarter of the 20th century. The *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project* (CCSARP) compared speech acts (complementing, thanking, apologising, complaining, requesting, advising etc.) in different languages. Besides speech acts most cross-cultural studies focused on politeness phenomena in different languages and cultures.

Speech acts and politeness phenomena are very closely related to culture. In some Arabic countries the verb *divorce* is performative: a man can divorce a woman by saying *I divorce you* three times. This is not a performative verb in other cultures. The differences between Oriental (Chinese, Japanese etc.) and Western cultures in the role of politeness and modesty are well-known. As a result, pragmatics and intercultural studies are overlapping.

10.9.1 Pragmalinguistic features and cultural values

Different pragmatic norms reflect different hierarchies of values characteristic of different cultures. Wierzbicka (2003) studied the contrasts between English and Polish in giving advice, making requests and expressing opinions. No similar comparison of English and Hungarian is available, but in respect of pragmatic norms Hungarian is quite close to Polish. Therefore, a brief summary of this research will be presented here.

Advice. In Polish, advice is typically given in the form of an imperative, while English prefers to use indirect, tentative formulae like *'d rather; you'd better, if I were you etc.* The explicit performative *I advise you* is seldom used because it sounds very stiff and formal. On the other hand, the corresponding Polish performative *ja ci radzę* sounds perfectly colloquial.

Requests. In English, requests are usually indirect: they are realised through interrogative forms (often containing modal auxiliaries). In Polish the use of interrogative forms is limited.

Opinions. In Polish opinions are expressed forcefully, as statements of fact or as 'the truth'. English tends to be more tentative, using expressions such *as I think, I believe, in my view, I reckon, I guess, I suppose.* English is fond of ***understatement*** and hedges, while Polish tends to overstate and over-emphasise rather than to understate.[78]

From these pragmalinguistic contrasts Wierzbicka concludes that they are related to underlying cultural values. In Anglo-Saxon culture *distance is a positive cultural value*, associated with *respect for the autonomy* of the individual, while in Polish culture it is associated with hostility and alienation. In English *objectivism* is a cultural value, while in Polish culture *cordiality* is more important. This is confirmed by linguistic and behavioural features. Polish uses a rich system of diminutives, which reflects a culture in which emotions in general and affection in particular are expected to be shown overtly. Anglo-Saxon culture does not encourage unrestrained display of emotions, so in adult English speech diminutives feel out of place. Differences in leave-taking behaviour are also telling: if guests indicate that they are about to leave, in Anglo-Saxon culture they are usually allowed to go. In Polish culture leave-taking is more difficult: hosts want to show their cordiality by trying to prevent the guests from leaving. From a Polish perspective, Anglo-Saxon culture seems as restrained in physical expressiveness (touching, kissing, hand-kissing, hand-shaking, hugging) as Japanese culture seems to Americans.

[78] Cf. Jespersen: *English is a masculine language.* http://www.universalteacher.org.uk/lang/gender.htm

In terms of the Cooperative Principle and the Politeness Principle we can say that in some situations the Maxim of Quantity and the Maxim of Generosity come into conflict, and different cultures resolve the conflict in different ways. In western cultures, Quantity prevails: following the Maxim of Quantity you offer food or drink to someone only once (this is sufficient: no more is needed). In Central European cultures, you repeat your offer several times, which violates the Maxim of Quantity, but satisfies the Maxim of Generosity.

10.9.2 Pragmatic contrasts between Hungarian and English in the area of speech acts

Studies comparing speech acts in Hungarian and English are few. Katalin Szili published a series of studies analysing various speech acts in Hungarian (Szili 2002, 2003, 2004, 2016). These studies, although focused on Hungarian, do contain some references to Hungarian–English pragmatic contrasts. The paper *A bókra adott válaszok pragmatikája* ['The Pragmatics of Compliment Response'] (Szili 2004, 2016) will be summarised here.

Complementing is an important speech act, since it helps to maintain good social relations. People are expected to respond to a compliment, and the two utterances – the compliment and the response – constitute a so-called *adjacency pair.* Accepted forms of compliments and compliment responses are culture-bound.

Responding to compliments is difficult because in doing so two principles of politeness come into conflict (see above). It is more polite to agree than to disagree; at the same time, if you express agreement with the compliment, you may seem immodest – and it is more polite to be modest and refrain from praising yourself. Different cultures resolve clashes in different ways: in Western cultures quality tends to prevail, i.e., you are expected to tell the truth even if you appear conceited or if it is unpleasant for the addressee or yourself.

According to Szili (2004, 2016) there are three main strategies used in responding to a compliment: *acceptance* (expressing agreement, thanking for the compliment, expressing joy, returning the compliment etc.), *disagreement/rejection* (downgrading/disparaging comments, expression of confusion and embarrassment, disagreement, etc.) and *deflection/evasion* (shifting/deflecting credit, ignoring the compliment, offering some neutral remark, changing the subject etc.)

Speech communities use different strategies and with different frequency, and this is connected with general cultural values. In American culture, individualism and positive thinking are cultural values; Americans tend to have a positive self-image. Ignoring a compliment or rejecting it would conflict with their positive self-image. Thus, in most cases their preferred compliment response is the main strategy of acceptance (expressing agreement, thanking

and returning the compliment). "According to the prevailing norm in Anglo-Saxon culture, the addressee of the compliment should accept and gracefully thank his conversational partner for the appraisal [...]. This is the behavior called for by etiquette, instilled into children, and suggested by the dialogues in language textbooks [...]" (Szili 2016: 53). In Chinese culture people are expected to conduct themselves in a more modest manner and tend to reject compliments. Hungarians are midway between Americans and Chinese: modesty is important, but it is not taken to extremes. "The rule called for goes a bit like this: be aware of your values and be confident, but only to a certain extent" (ib.). Norms of course may change in a globalised world: encounters with the cultural patterns of other nations through travel, movies and TV do have an impact on cultural norms.

10.9.3 Cross-cultural variation in apologising

As mentioned above, studies of pragmatic contrasts between English and Hungarian are scarce. Therefore, to illustrate possible contrasts in pragmatic behaviour, the speech act of apologizing will be discussed here, based on a study of English–Arabic contrasts, which will also introduce a well-known tool of cross-cultural pragmatic investigations, the so-called discourse completion questionnaire. Students are encouraged to use it in their own research.

In making an apology, routine formulae are used in both English and Hungarian: apologetic behaviour is ritualistic. Differences may be found in the number and frequency of use of apologetic formulae and the number of so-called supportive moves, e.g., offering an explanation, admitting fault, showing concern, offer of help, showing lack of intention, etc.

I'm sorry. It's my fault. What can I do to make it right?

These are *pragmalinguistic* differences/contrasts. The task of the learner, from the pragmalinguistic point of view, is to learn the routine formulae: *sorry, excuse me, it's my fault, I (do) apologise* etc. The learning task is even greater with respect to the *sociopragmatic* differences, which include the following:

- In what situations is an apology needed?
- How is the severity of offence judged in L2 culture?
- How many supportive moves are needed depending on the severity of the offence and other contextual variables?
- Which formulae are used in different situations?
- Which formulae are formal/informal?
- What is the difference among the various formulae available?

A well-known difficulty for learners of English with different linguistic backgrounds is to distinguish between *I'm sorry* and *Excuse me*, but learning how to make apologies in situations calling for several supportive moves is even more difficult both from the pragmalinguistic and the sociopragmatic aspect: Which formulae and how many supportive moves should be used in the given situation? How is the severity of the offence perceived in L2 culture?

By way of illustration, a short summary of a study on differences between English and Arabic apologetic behaviour will be given here (Al-Zumor 2011). The study used a discourse completion questionnaire, the most commonly used device in studies of cross-cultural pragmatic research. In this, participants are given a questionnaire asking them to write down what they would say in different situations. This method is based on the CCSARP (Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project) coding manual (Blum-Kulka and Ohlstain 1984, Blum Kulka et al.1989). The questionnaire used in this study requested participants (Arab learners of English, non-native Arab speakers of English and native speakers of British and American English) to write down what they would say in the three situations described above.

The study identified a number of interesting differences. It found, e.g., that American English speakers resort to routine strategies, standard, conventional and fixed forms, while Arab learners of English used intensifiers repetitively (*I am very very sorry, / I am really really sorry, / I am so so sorry*), which appears to be a case of transfer from Arabic, in which repetition is a common intensification technique. It was also found that due to cultural differences, native speakers of English and Arabic speakers assign different degrees of severity to the same situation. E.g., in the restaurant scene, only 38.8% of the Arab learners of English responded with apologetic expressions: more than half of the participants considered the offence in this situation slight and thought it was not offensive to ask for changing the order. British English speakers said they could not imagine changing the order (*"I could never imagine doing that unless there was something wrong with the food"*). There seems to be a major sociopragmatic difference here.

In the old lady scene, 24% of Arab learners of English used 'lack of intent expressions' like *"I didn't mean it, I didn't do it on purpose",* etc. In responses by American and British subjects this strategy never occurred. This contrast, again, indicates transfer from Arabic. Arabs tend to assure the offended/victim of their goodwill, hence, they use this strategy. Offers of help in non-native Arab speakers of English are a direct transfer from Arabic L1.

It has also been observed from the data that in Arab culture admitting one's deficiency in order to set things right is not as embarrassing and discrediting as in Anglo-Saxon culture. The immunity of one's private self is much less part of Arab culture.

10.9.4 Contrasts between Hungarian and English in the area of pragmatic markers

There has been some research on Hungarian–English contrasts in PMs and their effects on translation. Péter Furkó studied a number of pragmatic markers in various registers in English and Hungarian with special reference to their role in translation[79]. He found that translators tend to strive for formal equivalence, using the same (at times closely corresponding) DM[80] in the target text (TT) every time a particular DM occurs in the source text (ST) (Furkó 2014). This is not a very good strategy, given the large number of meanings and functions of PMs/DMs in different contexts. He also found that translators often use the strategy of omission, thereby losing a variety of communicative effects. However, when they want to convey the subtleties of the ST, they use a variety of other solutions. For instance, the Hungarian translations of the PM/DM *actually* included *igazából, pontosabban, egészen pontosan, sőt, vagyis, illetve*, etc. Schirm (2015) found that translators used 23 different solutions to translate the PM/DM *well*. Heltai studied the PM/DM *hiszen* in the translation of three Hungarian novels into English. He found that the central meaning/function of *hiszen* is to refer to shared knowledge between speaker and hearer, but it also has several less central meanings. Some of these meanings may correspond to *after all* or *but* in English, but some have no correspondents at all. Consider these sentences:

Hiszen csak kerüljön a szemem elé! Hiszen csak volna időm!

The study showed that the PM/DM *hiszen* was not translated in 35, 50 and 60% of all occurrences respectively. In some cases, the meaning of *hiszen* was rendered by a more explicit phrase: *what's more, I don't think, I mean it, I'm sure, in any case. It was true, let's face it, There you are then, You know perfectly well* (Heltai 2018). These findings show that the propositional content can be rendered without translating the PM/DM, and if there is no direct equivalent, the prevailing strategy is omission.

[79] See e.g., Furkó 2014, 2019, 2020, Furkó and Abuczki 2015.

[80] In this paper, the author uses the term *discourse marker* (DM) for the same items that we have called *pragmatic markers* (PM) elsewhere.

10.10 Pragmatic contrasts in Teaching pragmatics

10.10.1 The importance of pragmatics in English language teaching

Pragmatic competence is an important part of communicative competence. It is not an optional extra in foreign language teaching: speaking a foreign language involves more than knowing the grammar and the words. It also means that the non-native speaker can behave in pragmatically appropriate and socially acceptable ways. This is reflected in the fact that the *Common European Framework of Reference* devotes special attention to the development of pragmatic competence.

Native speakers of a language follow certain pragmatic norms and behave pragmatically appropriately in various situations. Non-native speakers may be unacquainted with these norms or their L1 norms may interfere with L2 norms. The likelihood of pragmatic interference is enhanced by the fact that L1 pragmatic norms seem to be transferable to learners, i.e., deceptive transferability tends to mislead learners.

L2 pragmatic norms are usually taught implicitly: learners are exposed to oral and written L2 texts and are expected to absorb the pragmatic norms of L2 from being exposed to L2 communication (Kasper 1997). Explicit teaching is confined to occasional remarks concerning certain speech acts.

Pragmatically appropriate behaviour acquires special importance at the advanced level. Native speakers are usually tolerant of grammatical mistakes – they make allowance for the mistakes of foreign learners. However, grammatically correct utterances may be pragmatically inappropriate, and may cause either misunderstanding or may lead native speakers to believe that the non-native speaker is rude or behaves in an unacceptable way. In a Hungarian classroom, learners may misunderstand the instruction *Would you like to read?* which of course is not an inquiry about the preferences of the learner for different kinds of activities but a polite, indirect directive speech act meaning *Read!*

10.10.2 Pragmalinguistic failure

We cannot say that a pragmatically unsuccessful utterance is an error: we can only say that it is inappropriate and/or fails to achieve its goal. Pragmatically inappropriate utterances may or may not be understood, but in both cases, they lead to miscommunication, or *pragmatic failure. Pragmalinguistic failure* may be due to learners' inability to correctly interpret the pragmatic force of a particular form in L2, lack of direct correspondence between speech acts in L 1 and L2, or imperfect command of lower-level grammar and lack of routine

formulae. The same speech act can be performed in L2 using a range of different utterances, but the forms are often not interchangeable, and the form most typically used in one language may be different from the form most typically used in another (Thomas 1983).

10.10.3 Sociopragmatic failure

Sociopragmatic failure is related to cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour, and cross-culturally different assessments of social value. A foreign learner will assess size of imposition, social-distance, etc. differently from a native-speaker. Sociopragmatic 'errors' are often perceived as rudeness by native speakers. An example of this is presented in *Appendix 3*.

In Britain it is impolite to ask about a stranger's income, politics, religion, marital status or weight. Asking a stranger for a cigarette – common among friends – is not acceptable, either. This was common in the Soviet Union: strangers often asked people for a cigarette in the street (Thomas 1995). Making reference in L2 to something that is taboo in L2 culture also counts as pragmatic failure.

Correcting pragmatic failure due to sociopragmatic miscalculation is a far more delicate matter for the language teacher than correcting pragmalinguistic failure. Foreign learners are sensitive about having their social (political, religious, or moral) judgement called into question.

10.10.4 Can pragmatic competence be taught?

In this section we shall consider the issue of teaching pragmatic competence based on a seminal paper by Kasper (1997).

Some believe that L2 pragmatic competence will develop in learners automatically through exposure to authentic L2 communication, and also because they can transfer pragmatic competence from their L1. This is only partly true. Some parts of pragmatic competence can indeed be transferred: based on their L1 pragmatic competence learners know that conversations follow certain patterns, participants in a conversation take turns at talk, pragmatic intentions can be expressed directly or indirectly, the context and background knowledge must be taken into consideration in interpreting utterances, routine formulae are used in everyday situations, and social relations such as power, psychological distance and politeness have a role in interpretation. Learners know the most common directive and emotive speech acts (requesting, thanking, apologizing etc.), their linguistic realizations and supportive moves (Kasper 1997).

Some pragmalinguistic features are the same in L1 and L2: e.g., both English and Hungarian uses requests of the type *Could you come? Would you come? – El tudna jönni? Eljönne?* In these areas, positive transfer is possible.

However, in many cases pragmatic differences may cause difficulty for learners because of *deceptive transferability*: even with adequate exposure to the use of PMs in L2 speech, learners may fail to notice the contrasts with their L1 pragmatic norms, and automatically transfer their L1 norms into L2 communication. An interesting example of pragmalinguistic transfer due to cross-linguistic contrasts is given by Thomas (1995). Russians often use the PM *of course* inappropriately in speaking English. Apparently, they identify the Russian word *конечно* ('koneshno') with English *of course* and use the latter wherever they would use *конечно* in Russian. However, while the latter word is neutral in Russian and can be used in practically any situation, in some situations the phrase *of course* may sound impolite in English: it presupposes that you have asked a stupid question to which the answer is obvious. In this way, Russians may unintentionally sound rude to English ears without noticing that they are not polite. Speakers of various languages may unintentionally break norms of politeness by using direct speech acts instead of indirect ones. An utterance like *Tell me please how to get to ...*, modelled on a perfectly acceptable Russian inquiry addressed to a stranger (*Скажите пожалуйста, как мне доехать к ...*) might sound too direct to a native speaker who expects a more indirect, more tentative inquiry (*Excuse me, please, could you tell me the way to ...*) (Thomas 1983).

Learners do not always transfer their existing knowledge to new areas and new tasks and often choose literal interpretation. Sometimes they do not even use in L2 the correspondents of the politeness formulae of their L1 and do not differentiate according to social power and distance. Sometimes they draw the wrong inferences or do not understand implied meaning. In the following conversation, quoted by Kasper (1997), learners may fail to understand the implied criticism:

Sue: *How was your dinner last night?*
Anne: *Well, the food was nicely presented.*

Understanding implicatures may prove difficult even after several years of learning, especially when understanding presupposes background cultural knowledge. Replies to questions that have an obvious answer (*Do you like icecream?*) of the type *Is the Pope Catholic?* may baffle learners. Non-native speakers may find it difficult to express their proposals or requests indirectly (*What I am thinking of is... I have a suggestion... I wonder if this would work...* etc.). They either did not have adequate input in their learning environment or *did not notice it.* As a result, misunderstanding may arise.

Pragmalinguistic competence can definitely be taught. Learners must and can acquire the routine formulae that are needed for performing various speech acts (e.g., *I'm sorry, I apologise, I'm afraid*, questions with modals for indirect requests etc.) even at the beginning stage, and they must also be told which is the favoured form among several available forms and what supportive moves typically accompany a given speech act (e.g., the number and kind of supportive moves to an apology) (Thomas 1983).

Learners must also be sensitised to sociopragmatic differences, e.g., in judging the severity of an offence. On the whole, however, sociopragmatic competence is more difficult to acquire since students may feel that following pragmatic norms different from those in L1 will threaten their sense of individual or cultural identity. They may feel that they are being asked to adopt a different system of values, perhaps even to take on a new personality (Thomas 1983).

Teaching sociopragmatic competence is difficult because frontal teaching does not provide sufficient input. The range of speech acts and politeness formulae occurring in classroom conversation is rather narrow, discourse formulae for opening and closing a conversation are short and simple, there are fewer discourse markers than in conversations outside the classroom, and organisation and control of the discourse belongs to the teacher. The basic pattern of classroom conversation is elicitation – reply – feedback, which is different from natural communication (Kasper 1997).

10.10.5 How can pragmatic competence be taught?

It is important to conduct classes in L2, since this may provide opportunities for real communication. It is also important to devise tasks for practising pragmatic issues in communicative situations. Roleplay exercises and drama acting may be useful in this respect (Kasper 1997).

Explicit teaching and *consciousness-raising* are also useful, sometimes indispensable. Teaching contrasts in pragmatic behaviour is sometimes only possible by calling attention to them, by *sensitising learners* to cross-cultural differences and by teaching them to *notice* the information needed for developing their pragmatic competence. E.g., learners may need to be told about the function of compliments in British and American culture, the linguistic formulae used in complimenting and the compliment responses generally expected. They may be set the task of observing pragmatic features in oral or written L2 communication (Thomas 1983).

It should also be pointed out that coursebooks usually teach the norms of the culturally dominant classes. However, there is a diversity of pragmatic values in British and American society, and pragmatic norms may also change (Thomas 1983).

10.10.6 What pragmatic behaviour is expected from foreigners?

According to Thomas (1995), foreign students are not expected to be too informal. They are expected to be hypercorrect and to speak a superstandard English both grammatically and pragmatically. Swearing is not expected. A 'reduced personality' is expected: foreigners are allowed only banal and conventional opinions. Kasper (1997) also notes that native speakers do not expect a 100% native pragmatic behaviour from language learners – indeed, they may slightly resent it: after all, non-native speakers are outsiders. Perhaps a slight deviation from native norms is useful, indicating that the speaker is not a member of the native speech community.

The teacher's job is not to enforce native speaker standards of behaviour, but *to prevent the learner from being unintentionally rude* and to point out the consequences of certain types of linguistic behaviour (Thomas 1983).

10.11 Tasks

1. What speech acts do these utterances perform?
I now pronounce you married.
I name this ship Enterprise.
You are under arrest.
I promise that I shall be there.
I declare the meeting open.
Would you like some tea?
Stand to attention!
I declare the meeting open.
This is my house.
Love one another. (Cf. *I give you a new command. Love one another.* – The New Testament)
Do not drink so much. I advise you not to drink so much.
It will give you a headache. I warn you that it will give you a headache.

2. Study this conversation and answer the questions:

B: *That looks very nice, put it on and let's have a look at you.*
A: *I don't like the two buttons, I didn't know it had two buttons, I thought it had three.*
C: *Well, it's the style of the coat, Ken.*
B: *Lovely, lovely.*
A: *Does it look nice?*
B: *Yeah, yeah.*

A: *It's all right then, eh?*
B: *It's very nice, Dad, it looks very, very good.*
A: *I don't like the, I like three buttons you see ...*
C: *Ken, it's the style of the coat!*[81]

What is the context? Who are the participants, and what are they doing? What is the relationship among the participants? What speech acts do the different utterances represent? How do the relationships among the participants determine the speech acts performed?

3. Discuss.

To what extent do the pragmatic features of Polish apply to Hungarian?
What pragmatic formulae are used in English when giving and receiving a present?
From the sociopragmatic point of view, what is the difference between *I am sorry* and *I do apologize*?

4. Read this extract form a newspaper article and discuss why an impolite, insulting word can be used *amiably*.

A course which teaches foreign workers to swear and interpret swear words is being run for foreigners, mainly Asian immigrants, at Oldham, Lancs. [...]

Among the more printable examples are: "daft bastard" and "my bloody arm".

*Foreigners are told that the former is not necessarily derogatory but is often meant **amiably,** while the latter did not mean that the speaker's arm was actually bleeding.*[82]

5. Look up the translations of the following PMs/DMs in glosbe.hu.

A. *hát, hiszen, mellesleg, szóval, más szóval, tulajdonképpen, vajon, végül is, ugyanis, persze, ugyebár*

B. *I mean, you know, actually, as a matter of fact, anyway, after all, mind you, you bet, in any event, otherwise, incidentally, ironically*

[81] Adapted from McCarthy, M. 1999. *Spoken Language and Applied Linguistics.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[82] The Daily Telegraph, 26.07.2002.

Chapter 11

LINGUISTIC CONTRASTS IN ENGLISH–HUNGARIAN AND HUNGARIAN–ENGLISH TRANSLATION

11.1 Linguistic theories of translation

Since classical times, many great translators have discussed their experience and summarised their views on translation, but translation theory as a science did not exist until the 20th century (Klaudy 1994/2003). It was only around the second half of the 20th century, in the 1950s, that Translation Theory, or Translation Studies, as it was to be called some time later, began to be established as a science.

Early Translation Studies was closely related to communication theory and linguistics. While previously translation was studied mainly within the framework of literary studies, early translation theorists approached it from the side of linguistics, giving rise to what became known in the 1950s and 1960s as *linguistic theories of translation* (Jakobson 1959, Nida 1964, Nida and Taber 1969, Newmark 1988, Koller 1997, Vinay and Darbelnet 1968, Catford 1968, etc.). These theories were closely allied to linguistics in general, and to Contrastive Linguistics in particular. Early theories modelled the process of translation on the code model of communication.

According to the model (proposed by the mathematicians Shannon and Weaver in 1949), a Sender (S) starts with a nonverbal Message (M), encodes it in a code (the signs of a given language), and the Coded Message (CM) will pass through a channel (air waves or writing) to a Receiver (R), who will decode the message and will reconstruct in their mind the nonverbal message that the speaker started with. This is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. *Monolingual communication according to the code model (Shannon és Weaver, 1949)*

S	⇒	CM	⇒	R
encoding nonverbal message			decoding (converting into nonverbal) form	

Early translation theories assumed that translation is merely a doubling of this process: in translation, the primary Receiver (Receiver$_1$) will act as secondary sender (Sender$_2$). They will start with a coded message (CM$_1$), the code being the source language (SL), and after decoding it (converting it into nonverbal

form) will re-encode it in another code, the target language (TL). The secondary Receiver$_2$ (the TL reader) will then decode this second coded message (CM$_2$) and will convert it into nonverbal form. The process is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4. *Translational communication according to the code model*

S_1	⇒	CM_1	⇒	$R_1 = S_2$ (TRANSLATOR)
	encoding in SL			decoding/converting into nonverbal form
S_2	⇒	CM_2	⇒	R_2
	re-encoding in TL			decoding/converting into nonverbal form

The code model of translation assumes that

- Translation is a matter of language: the translator adjusts the form of the message, exchanging the signs of the SL with those of the TL; in this way, *translation is a matter of language.*
- The translated text is in a different code, but it is the same message, *equivalent* to the SL message; the message is transferred in its entirety.
- *The difficulties are caused by* differences in the codes, i.e. *linguistic contrasts* between SL and TL, i.e., due to the non-correspondence of certain formal categories in different languages.

Since translation was regarded as a matter of language, with difficulties of translation attributed to linguistic contrasts between SL and TL, it was natural to expect that contrastive analysis of SL and TL structures will solve the problems of translation. Such contrastive analyses were expected to enable linguists to identify regular *transfer operations* between SL and TL (also termed '*translation shifts*', i.e. regular deviations from literal translation in translated texts). Since early CL was focused on structure *at the sentence level,* early translation theories were also sentence-bound. Research on translation consisted of comparing source texts (ST) and target texts (TT) on the sentence level, studying equivalence at word or sentence level and identifying and classifying transfer operations.

The same trend prevailed in early training courses. Exercises in translation often consisted of translating sentences, exemplifying some grammatical structure. Here is an example:

Translate.
The satellite is expected to remain in orbit for years.
The storm was expected to intensify, but then it moved on.
Brazil is reported to be promising to bring inflation down.
The opposition is said to be holding talks with the government.
The Vice President is scheduled to arrive in Tokyo on Monday.
Miners are said to have been holding street demonstrations to demand the release of fellow miners arrested during last week's strike.
Police arrested two men believed to be the leaders of last week's riots.
Police searched Tuesday for killers, believed to belong to the IRA, who shot a man through the head. Police said the man, who was without shoes, was believed to have been dumped from a car.[83]

In the 1970s, **Translation Studies** (TS) was established as an independent discipline (Holmes 1972) and it backed away from CL, realising that the process of translation involves more than replacing SL structures with TL structures. It was realised that

- translation is communication in context,
- it involves real texts, not just individual, de-contextualised sentences,
- text production requires communicative competence, not just linguistic competence,
- in most cases, equivalence does not mean that all the meanings in the ST have been transferred; in many cases it is only optimal resemblance that can be achieved (Gutt 1991),
- the cultural background is often more important than structural correspondence, and
- connotations and pragmatic meanings are important.

Let us examine the following texts and decide which components of general communicative competence are needed to understand and translate them: linguistic competence (grammatical and lexical, including scientific terminology), discourse competence (including knowledge of text-type and register), pragmatic competence (including ability to recognise the function of the ST, ability to interpret it based on cultural and world knowledge and the discourse situation – who is communicating with whom, for what purpose, and the effect the author intends to achieve), intertextual competence (reference to previous texts known to the audience), general world and specialist knowledge (including knowledge of the theory of relativity).

[83] Пумпянский, Алексей Леонидович. 1965. *Пособие по переводу научной и технической литературы на английский язык.* (Manual for the translation of scientific and technical literature into English.) Москва: Наука.

A. *Water is a liquid which has the molecular formula H20. There may be small quantities of dissolved solids or gas, or the liquid may be pure.*

B. *General positions available*

Needed immediately for the president of international company. Mature male assistant secretary. Very high class fluent English and French. Excellent typist. Extensive experience a must. Much travel. Single absolutely straight. Good opportunity for career advancement. Excellent salary. The highest professional only apply. Send resume to PO Box 374, Geneva, Switzerland.[84]

C. *Einstein rules relatively, OK*

(Cf.: *Arsenal rule, OK; Cowardice rules, if that's all right by you; Procrastination will rule one day, OK?; Sceptics may or may not rule, OK; Synonyms govern, all right; Roget's thesaurus dominates, regulates, rules, OK, all right, agreed; Heisenberg probably rules, OK; Schrodinger rules the waves, OK; Schizophrenia rules, OK,OK; Amnesia rules, O; Apathy ru*)[85]

If we want to see if a text can be translated relying on linguistic competence alone, we can check this by having these texts translated by machine:

A. *A víz olyan folyadék, amelynek molekulaképlete H20. Kis mennyiségű oldott szilárd anyag vagy gáz lehet, vagy a folyadék lehet tiszta.*

B. *A rendelkezésre álló általános pozíciók*

Azonnal szükség van a nemzetközi társaság elnökére. Érett férfi asszisztens titkár. Nagyon magas színvonalú, folyékony angol és francia nyelv. Kiváló gépíró. Széleskörű tapasztalat elengedhetetlen. Sok utazás. Egyetlen teljesen egyenes. Jó lehetőség az előmenetelre. Kiváló fizetés. Csak a legmagasabb szintű szakember érvényes. Küldje el önéletrajzát a PO Box 374-be, Genf, Svájc.

C. *Einstein viszonylag uralkodik, rendben*

(Vö.: *Arsenal-szabály, OK; Gyávaság-szabályok, ha Önnek ez rendben van; A halogatás egy nap uralkodik, rendben?; A szkeptikusok uralkodhatnak vagy nem, OK; A szinonimák kormányoznak, rendben; Roget-tezaurusz uralkodik, szabályoz, szabályoz, Rendben, rendben, egyetértett; Heisenberg valószínűleg uralkodik, rendben; Schrodinger uralja a hullámokat, rendben; skizofrénia szabályozza, rendben, rendben; amnézia szabályai, O; Apátia ru)*[86]

11.2 Translation Studies today

Today translation is regarded as a communicative process. TS focuses on the function of translation, intended meaning, inferring unexpressed meaning,

[84] The Daily Mail, 08.02.1990.

[85] Nash, W. 1985. *The Language of Humour*. London: Routledge.

[86] Google translate. Last accessed 03.11.2020. It must be noted, however, that the quality of machine translation is improving day by day, and these translations may have improved by the time you read this.

the role of background knowledge, cohesion and coherence, the process of translation, translation universals, translated language (translationese), translation of culture-specific elements (culture-specific items or realia), translation competence, and translation evaluation. On the heels of linguistic theories of translation came the so-called cultural turn of TS, which highlighted the role of cultural differences, especially in literary translation.

In recent years there has been a revival of contrastive studies of translation due to the availability of corpus technology. The crosslinguistic aspects of translation are studied with the help of *bilingual, parallel and comparable corpora*. Bilingual corpora contain source language texts and their TL translations; parallel corpora are collections of SL texts and unrelated TL texts on the same topic; comparable corpora contain original, non-translated texts in a given language and texts translated into that language. The use of comparable corpora makes it possible to compare the frequency of occurrence of particular linguistic items, such as the conjunction *that* in original and translated English texts (Baker and Olohan 2000).

11.2.1 The role of L1–L2 contrasts in translation

In TS and translator training similar trends prevail as in foreign language teaching. In addition to structural contrasts, contrasts in phraseology, pragmatics and text organisation are also studied. And, as in FLT, it is not only linguistic factors that are taken into consideration: TS also employs a *multifactor approach,* including the status and remuneration of translators.

The factors influencing translation, just like in FLT, can be divided into linguistic and non-linguistic factors, shown below. Please note that some of the factors are different from those found in FLT.

Linguistic factors

- L1–L2 contrasts,
- contrasts in language use (norms),
- contrasts in text organisation,
- pragmatic contrasts,
- language pair,
- direction of translation.

Language-related factors

- cognitive environment (background knowledge) of TL reader, including cultural knowledge.

Non-linguistic factors
- translation brief,
- work environment,
- translation technology,
- translator's technological competence,
- deadlines and other practical factors,
- general social context of translation.

11.2.2 The effect of L1/L2 contrasts in translation

Crosslinguistic influences in translation to a large extent depend on the *direction of translation* and the *qualifications of the translator.* The effects of the SL are more significant in L1–L2 translation than in L2–L1 translation, and novice translators (inexperienced translators) have more problems with crosslinguistic influences than experienced, professional translators. The influence of the SL and ST on the TL and TT is manifested in the form of

- positive transfer (literal translation is possible),
- negative transfer (interference),
- strategy use.

Positive transfer in translation means that literal translation is possible, and the translator does not have to search for non-literal solutions (Heltai 2010). However, positive transfer may lead to negative results: even if a text can be translated literally, it is not certain that the target audience will understand it. The translator must take into consideration the target audience's cognitive environment, too: if it is very different from that of the source audience, a literal translation, although possible, will not be sufficient. Consider this American joke:

> *But apart from that, Mrs. Lincoln, how did you like the play?*
> *De attól eltekintve, Mrs. Lincoln, hogy tetszett a darab?*

This literal translation may draw a blank stare from most Hungarian audiences: even though their cognitive environment contains information about President Lincoln's assassination, this knowledge is not activated immediately by the name *Mrs. Lincoln*. In a similar way, literal translation of the phrase *Germans by the swimming pool* in the text *Britain's Medallion Men win no medals* (see Chapter 5) will leave the Hungarian reader wondering why on earth is it *the swimming pool* where Germans are particularly disliked? The answer can be found in several other newspaper articles and an extremely funny video (last accessed on 03.11.2020):

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CZ9L8KAjPA8
- https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/europe/germany/10880940/Sunbed-nabbing-Germans-and-their-beach-towels-is-biggest-holiday-grievance-in-Germany.html
- http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/4132878.stm
- https://www.independent.co.uk/travel/news-and-advice/holiday-sunbed-wars-germans-claim-brits-are-worst-towel-hogging-not-them-9659932.html

On the other hand, in contexts where the same cultural (or professional) background is shared by the St and TT audience, positive transfer makes translation (machine translation included) easy.

Why didn't the chicken cross the road? Because there was a KFC on the other side.	*Miért nem ment át a csirke az úton? Mert a túloldalon volt egy KFC.*[87]
A four-stroke (also four-cycle) engine is an internal combustion (IC) engine in which the piston completes four separate strokes while turning the crankshaft. A stroke refers to the full travel of the piston along the cylinder, in either direction.	*A négyütemű (vagy négyciklusú) motor olyan belső égésű motor, amelyben a dugattyú négy külön löketet végez a forgattyús tengely forgatása közben. A löket a dugattyú teljes útját jelenti a hengerben, bármelyik irányban.*[88]

Negative transfer in translation. Overt errors (mistranslations) in English–Hungarian translation occur rarely, at least in the translations of well-trained, experienced translators. Occasional overt errors are due to misunderstanding the ST. For instance, when the English phrase *Enjoy yourself* is translated in a television serial as **Élvezd magad*, or the phrase *I can see the yellow streak in him* is translated as **Látom benne a sárga szalagot*, or the sentence *Giles and Gwenda sat together at a corner table in the Ginger Cat*[89] is translated as **Giles és Gwenda egy sarokasztalnál ültek a Gyömbér Macskában*[90], it is clear that mistranslation is due to deficiencies in the translator's linguistic or translation competence rather than SL/TL contrasts. Linguistic competence is needed to find the correct translation in the first two examples (*érezd jól magad; látom, hogy gyáva*), and cultural knowledge is needed to decide between two meanings of *ginger* (*gyömbér; vörös*) in the name of a pub. Here is the sign of a *Ginger Cat bed and breakfast:*[91]

[87] DeepL Translate. Last accessed 20.02.2022.
[88] DeepL Translate. Last accessed 20.02.2022.
[89] Christie, A. 1977. *Sleeping Murder,* New York, Bantam Books.
[90] Christie, A. 1991. *Szunnyadó gyilkosság*, Fordította: Hazai Lajosné. Budapest: Hunga Print.
[91] https://www.gingercat-bb.com/property-photos.html



In English–Hungarian professional translation most 'errors' are covert errors: the distributions of certain grammatical constructions and lexical items are different from their distributions in non-translated Hungarian texts. Such differences are not really errors: translated language is necessarily different from non-translated language (see the literature on *translation universals*, e.g. Baker 1993).

11.3 TRANSFERABILITY

In the case of less competent translators and language learners, especially in L1–L2 translation, *transferability* plays an important role in the genesis of errors. As in foreign language teaching, it is unmarked structures or lexical items that tend to be transferred. Pragmatic features also appear to be unmarked. Deceptive transferability is common in the case of

- polysemous words with transferred meanings very close to the central meaning,
- unmarked collocations,
- false cognates,
- word building patterns, e.g., loan translation of transparent compounds,
- pragmatic features.

11.4 Strategy use in translation

Strategic language use occurs whenever a communicator meets a problem and tries to overcome it. Strategies are needed in communication in one's native language, communication in a foreign/second language, and in translation. As in FLT, the strategies used in translation can be divided into two large groups: avoidance or reduction strategies and achievement or compensatory strategies.

The causes of strategic language use, however, are different in foreign language communication and translation. In foreign language communication strategies are mostly used to overcome deficits in language competence. In translation, strategies are needed and used mainly because of

- Structural and lexical differences between the SL and the TL,
- Pragmatic, sociolinguistic and text-organisational (discourse) differences between the SL and the TL,
- Differences between the background knowledge (cultural background) of SL and TL readers.

11.5 Translatability

Practically every word in every language has a different meaning from similar words in other languages (cf. Chapter 6). Whorf's (1956) theory of linguistic relativity claims that reality is segmented in different ways by different languages, therefore language determines thought.

This is a controversial theory. Although language may affect thinking to some extent, there is not sufficient evidence to support the claim that speakers of different languages perceive reality in completely different ways or have different worldviews. Human languages, according to Chomsky (1981), are built on shared, universal principles, although there are many differences in their surface syntax and lexical items.

In addition to linguistic differences, translation is also greatly affected by differences in the cultural background of different speech communities. This raises the question whether, given such differences, translation is possible at all. The answer is in the affirmative: yes, in the case of most text types,

translation is possible, but some texts are easy, and some are difficult to translate, and there are some texts (puns, jokes, advertisements, slogans, poems) that cannot be translated at all. Consider the following:

– *Mi a különbség Spanyolország és Magyarország között?*
– *(Nem tudom.)*
– *Semmi: nálunk is Lopez, meg Lopaz, mégis minden frankó.*

Clearly, this joke cannot be translated into English; it can only be replaced by another joke, as in the following example:

– *My wife's gone to the West Indies.* – *Jamaica?* – *No, she went of her own accord.*[92]	– *(A feleségem) Indonéziába utazott.* – *Dzsakarta?* – *Nem is én kényszerítettem.*[93]

In the case of culture-specific items, denotative meaning can be conveyed relatively easily, even where the TL lacks a corresponding lexical item. There are several well-tried strategies (transfer operations) that can be used. Consider this sentence from a restaurant guide:

Bryndzové halušky *This is the Slovak classic! Bryndzové halušky is considered a national dish. It is made out of potato dumplings, sheep cheese called "bryndza", sour cream, and bacon.*[94]

The English text borrows the Slovak word, and then explains it. If we want to translate it into Hungarian, we can choose from among several transfer operations:

Borrowing	*bryndzové haluśky*
Borrowing + translation/explanation	*bryndzové haluśky, azaz juhtúrós galuska*
Calque	*juhtúrós galuska*
Paraphrase	burgonyás/krumplis galuska, tipikus szlovák étel, amelyre juhtúrót és szalonnapörcöt tesznek; Magyarországon sztrapacska néven ismerik
Adaptation	*túróscsusza; sajtostészta*

[92] Wodehouse, P.G. 2008. *Uncle Dynamite,* London, Arrow. The pronunciation of *Jamaica* is very similar to that of *Did you make her* as pronounced in rapid speech.

[93] Wodehouse, P.G. 2006. *Dinamit bácsi,* Translated by Révbíró, T. Budapest: Európa.

[94] https://www.itinari.com/5-traditional-dishes-you-need-to-try-in-slovakia-e4x2. Accessed 04.11.2020.

Connotative meanings, important in literary texts, are more difficult to translate. You can check this by trying to translate the words *gémeskút, malomalja, fokos* in this poem:

Gémes kút, malom alja, fokos, Sivatag, lárma, durva kezek,
Vad csókok, bambák, álom-bakók A Tisza-parton mit keresek?[95]

In literary translation, especially in poetry, besides differences in connotative meanings, the main problem is that the gap between the cognitive environments (background knowledge) of SL and TL audience is very wide and there are several limiting factors related to language: number of syllables, rhythm, rhyme, dialectal forms, foreign words, obsolete words, neologisms, slang, etc.

11.6 Transfer Operations

In translation, we can identify regular deviations from literal translation, usually referred to as translation shifts, resulting from the use of what we call transfer operations or translation strategies. Transfer operations are carried out if literal translation does not yield a satisfactory solution due to linguistic, textual and cultural contrasts. Klaudy (1994, 2007) provides a detailed classification of transfer operations. This classification will not be presented here, but a list of lexical transfer operations will be given in *Appendix 4.*

Transfer operations can be identified on the basis of regular patterns of changes in translating certain SL and TL structures and words. This does not mean that translation is just a matter of language structure: changes in linguistic patterns are necessitated not only due to linguistic, but also cultural differences and differences in SL and TL readers' cognitive environments. The pedagogical value of studying transfer operations remains considerable, especially with novice translators in the L1–L2 direction. Klaudy (1994) maintains that studying transfer operations is useful because language learners and translators enjoy discovering linguistic contrasts between L1 and L2 and studying ways in which those contrasts impact translation. Conscious study of the translation operations used to bridge the linguistic and cultural gaps between L1 and L2 and analysis of transfer operations may give students a sense of security and may help them to acquire translation competence. Of course, transfer operations are not rules of translation: they are descriptive – they describe what translators usually do. They do not tell you how you *should* translate: they describe how certain structures and words *are usually*

[95] Ady Endre: *A Tiszaparton.* See https://erinna.verselemzes.hu/ady-endre-a-tisza-parton-elemzes/

translated. And, as a rule, there are several transfer operations that can be used to solve a given translation problem.

11.6.1 Obligatory and optional transfer operations

Linguistic contrasts between SL and TL make some operations obligatory: if they are not performed, the translation will violate TL norms, i.e., it will be ill-formed:

*Helen is a student. – *Helen van egy diák.*

Here omission of the verb *is* is obligatory. Some transfer operations are obligatory in the sense that the SL structure/word must be changed, but there are several operations that can be used:

Can you see that man standing by the fountain?
a) *Látod azt a szökőkút mellett álló embert?* (rearrangement – change of word order)
b) *Látod azt az embert, aki a szökőkút mellett áll?* (replacement of participle by clause)

Optional transfer operations are mostly operations that are performed for stylistic, pragmatic or cultural reasons. It is up to the translator to judge whether to perform them or not: if they are not performed, the translation may still be grammatically well-formed, but may prove stylistically inadequate or it may not convey some of the meanings of the SL text to the TL reader, or it may be more difficult to understand. Let us look at this example:

They crossed the Severn.
Átmentek a Severn-en.

This is a perfectly correct literal translation, and it may be appropriate if the target reader can be expected to know that *Severn* is the name of a river. However, if the reader is unlikely to have this information, it is best to carry out the transfer operation of *addition: Átmentek a Severn folyón.*

Failure to carry out optional transfer operations may also result in differences in distribution (see 11.2.2).

Experienced translators perform most transfer operations *automatically.* For less experienced translators it may be useful to consciously pay attention to the need to carry out certain transfer operations. Under the influence of the

SL text the translator may neglect optional (and sometimes even obligatory) transfer operations:

*Helen is a great tennis player. –*Helen egy csodálatos teniszező.*

(Omission of *egy* in the translation is more or less obligatory.)

The windows of the room look south. – (?) Az ablakai a szobának délre néznek.

(Rearrangement is quasi-obligatory: even though this word order does occur in Hungarian possessive constructions, it is not appropriate here. The natural word order in most contexts would be *a szoba ablakai*.)

11.6.2 Some important transfer operations

This section will not present all the different subcategories of transfer operations listed in Klaudy (1994). Grammatical transfer operations will be lumped together under the heading *grammatical replacement,* and only a few important types will be named. Lexical transfer operations will be treated in a similar way.

The grammatical transfer operations exemplified here include change of word class, change of subject, replacing grammatical structures by lexical items and vice versa, and rearrangement (word order changes). The lexical transfer operations exemplified will be generalisation, specification, antonymic translation, use of loanword, loanword plus explanation, addition and omission, distribution and contraction. Compensation and adaptation, which can be either grammatical or lexical, will also be mentioned.

Grammatical replacement: change of word class

Nagyon vigyáz arra, mit mond.
He's very careful about his words. (See Chapter 4.5)
Ne add fel olyan könnyen!
Don't be such a quitter. (See Chapter 4.5.2)
Szerintem nem erre a megoldásra van szükség.
I don't think this is the right solution.
Despite its unfortunate appearance on April Fool's Day, the notice was a serious attempt to keep local people informed.
Bár szerencsétlen módon éppen április elsején jelent meg, a közlemény komoly kísérlet volt a helyi lakosság tájékoztatására.

Grammatical replacement: change of subject

The crash killed four people. – *Négyen haltak meg a balesetben.*

The snowfall brought traffic to a standstill. – *A hóesés miatt megbénult a közlekedés.*

(See Chapter 4.2.1 and 4.2.2: *external causer* subjects in English)

Grammatical replacement: Active to Passive

In English–Hungarian translation, the Passive is usually converted into the Active. However, there are several other ways employed in translating the passive (see Chapter 4.3). In the case of the short passive, the Hungarian sentence will have a general subject, signalled by a plural 3rd person verb, but in some cases, it will be a plural 1st person verb.

In Hungarian–English translation, especially of academic texts, there often has to be a change from Active to Passive:

Meg kell jegyeznünk, hogy ... – *It should be noted that...* (**We have to remark that ...*)

In translating impersonal constructions, including the Passive, the agent that is unexpressed in English is often added in the Hungarian translation.

This was the hardest-hit area. – *A természeti csapás ezt a területet sújtotta a legjobban.*

Grammatical replacement: replacing grammatical structures by lexical items

Lehet, hogy szép nem vagyok ... – *I may not be beautiful ...*

Pigs might fly. – *Előfordulhat, hogy a disznók repülnek.*

In general, there is a tendency in Hungarian to use lexical words where English uses modal auxiliaries. In speaking and translating into English Hungarian learners will tend to use lexical words and neglect modal auxiliaries. In this way, what they say and write will be grammatically correct, but the distribution of lexical words and modal auxiliaries in their speech and writing will deviate from native speaker norms. The sentence *Előfordulhat, hogy a disznók repülnek* would probably be translated into English (by many learners) as *It can happen that pigs (will) fly.*

Lexical replacement: generalisation

I bought this watch quite cheap.	→ *Ezt az órát egészen olcsón vettem.* (See Chapter 6.5)
I bought this clock quite cheap.	→ *Ezt az órát egészen olcsón vettem.* (See Chapter 6.5)
Megérkezett a bátyád/öcséd.	→ *Your brother has arrived.* (See Chapter 6.5)
Take a Valium [vælɪəm].	→ *Vegyél be nyugtatót.*
He handed her a Kleenex.	→ *Odaadott neki egy papírzsebkendőt.*

… nagyapám a hétszilvafás domíniumból egy és egyharmad fát örökölt …
→ *… my grandfather inherited his tiny share of the property …*[96]

Lexical replacement: specification

Ezt az órát egészen olcsón vettem. → *I bought this watch quite cheap. / I bought this clock quite cheap.* (See Chapter 6.5)
Your brother has arrived. → *Megérkezett a bátyád. / Megérkezett az öcséd.* (See Chapter 6.5)

Lexical replacement: antonymic translation

A terv nem sikerült.	– *The plan failed.*
Idegeneknek tilos a belépés.	– *Staff only*
It didn't take long to find him.	– *Hamar megtaláltuk.*
There was no shortage of offers.	– *Bőven volt ajánlatunk.*

Addition

There are many simple words in English that correspond to compound words in Hungarian. In this case, it is obligatory to add something in the Hungarian translation. Conversely, in translating from Hungarian into English, compounds can often be reduced to a simple word.

Labour was short.	– *Nem volt elég munkaerő.*
Ministry of Labour/Health	– *Munkaügyi/Egészségügyi Minisztérium.*
carbon	– *széndioxid*

E.g. Coal combustion is more carbon intensive than burning natural gas or petroleum. – A szén elégetése szén-dioxid-intenzívebb, mint a földgáz vagy a kőolaj elégetése.

[96] Móricz Zs. 1982. *Úri muri*. Budapest: Móra. http://mek.oszk.hu/01400/01431/01431.htm. Móricz, Zs. 2008. *Very Merry,* Translated by Adams, B. Budapest: Corvina.

In translating some grammatical structures from English into Hungarian sometimes lexical words have to be added. Conversely, in the opposite direction, lexical words may be omitted.

I have seen roses, damasked, red, and white... – *Láttam már rózsát ...*[97]
Elfelejtette ugyanis kikapcsolni a tűzhelyet. – *He had forgotten to turn off the cooker.*
What's that? – I called after him, but the door had closed.
– Mi az? – szóltam utána, de addigra már becsukódott az ajtó.

In translating proper names in either direction, addition of an appositive phrase to compensate for lack of background knowledge is often necessary:

the Potomac – A Potomac folyó; a Tisza – the River Tisza; a Kékes – Mount Kékes

"It is your best work, Basil, the best thing you have ever done," said Lord Henry, languidly. "You must certainly send it next year to the Grosvenor. The Academy is too large and too vulgar. The Grosvenor is the only place."

Ez a legjobb munkád, Basil, a legjobb, melyet valaha festettél – mondotta Lord Henry álmatagon. – Okvetlenül be kell küldened jövőre a Grosvenor-tárlatra. Az akadémia csarnoka túl nagy és túl közönséges ehhez a képhez. Valóban csak a Grosvenor-tárlatra való.[98]

It is not commonly known that Charles Darwin intended to become a clergyman when he studied at Cambridge, or that the Church of England honoured him with burial in Westminster Abbey near Isaac Newton.[99]

Kevesen tudják, hogy Charles Darwin eredetileg papnak készült, amikor Cambridge-ben hittudományt tanult; amikor pedig meghalt, az anglikán egyház a Westminster apátságban temette el, Isaac Newton sírja közelében.[100]

Addition often involves *explicitation*, which means that information that is not coded in the ST is expressed in coded form in the TT. For more information on explicitation see Heltai (2003, 2005, 2010, Klaudy 1999, Klaudy and Károly 2005).

97 Shakespeare: *Sonnet CXXX*. Hungarian translation by Varró, D.

98 Wilde, O. 1993. *The Picture of Dorian Gray. Genoa: Blackcat.* Wilde, O. 1993. *Dorian Gray arcképe.* Translated by Kosztolányi, D. https://mek.oszk.hu/06000/06004/06004.pdf

99 Bakken, G. S.: *Creation or Evolution?* http://www.ncseweb.org/resources/articles/6733_...

100 Bakken, G. S.: *Teremtés vagy evolúció?* Translated by Szilágyi, A. http://www.freeweb.hu/ateizmus/

Omission

Omission may be obligatory in the case of grammatical contrasts: thus, e.g., in translating from English into Hungarian, 3rd person pronouns have to be omitted. This is automatically done by translators, but language learners may fall victim to interference. In translating from Hungarian into English, the definite article, endorsing items ('rámutatószavak') like *az, olyan*, and semantically empty participles often have to be omitted, e.g.

a sarkon álló/posztoló rendőr – the policeman at the corner

There is ample scope for optional omission in both directions of translation. Languages are redundant and elliptical at the same time: they may express the same information several times in the same sentence, and they may omit information mentioned in preceding text or obvious from general knowledge about the world. That is, not all the words of a text are necessary if we want to understand it: some words are repeated for grammatical reasons, others due to force of habit, and still others are there for no obvious reason. Consequently, in translation we may – and sometimes must – omit words that carry no important information, especially if their translation would make the target text unnatural or too complicated. Sometimes the SL text is poorly written, containing unnecessary repetitions. In such cases simplification (omission) is perfectly legitimate.

Omission does not always mean that information is lost, since the meaning of the omitted item may be recovered from the context or background knowledge. Real loss of information may also be acceptable if the information lost is not relevant for the TT reader. Consider the following example:

Data sent back to Earth by an <u>unmanned space</u> probe indicate <u>the planet Venus</u> has gigantic active volcanoes.
Azok az adatok, amelyeket egy űrszonda a Földre továbbított, arra utalnak, hogy a Vénuszon hatalmas működő vulkánok vannak.

The word *unmanned* is redundant: space probes do not carry astronauts. Translation of the word *planet* is also unnecessary: conventionally, Hungarian uses the names of planets without adding the word *bolygó.*

Distribution and contraction

Due to typological differences, L1 may express the same information in more or fewer words than L2. Hungarian verbs often have to be expressed in English in several words:

Látlak. → *I can see you.*
Kerestelek. → *I have been looking for you.*

This is obligatory *distribution* of meaning. In the opposite direction, there will be obligatory *contraction*:

I can see you. → *Látlak.*
I have been looking for you. → *Kerestelek.*

Distribution and contraction may be necessary with lexical items, too:

Sokan húztak hasznot ebből a vállalkozásból. – Many benefited from this enterprise.
Many benefited from this enterprise. – Sokan húztak hasznot ebből a vállalkozásból.

Distribution may be necessary in translating culture-specific items or words denoting new objects or phenomena:

jet lag – a gyorsjáratú transzkontinentális repülőgépek közlekedéséből következő időeltolódás élettani hatásai
baby boomers – a (háború után született) nagylétszámú korosztályok tagjai

However, such distribution is optional: the translator may choose a different solution, e.g., borrowing the SL word (*jetlag, baby boomer*), or shortening the paraphrase (*időeltolódás*).

Rearrangement (word order changes)

In many cases changes in word order are obligatory and are carried out automatically, even by less experienced translators, as in the Hungarian translation of the following phrases:

under the influence of alcohol; according to this report; in a minute; the day of the jackal; director general; the day after; the countries concerned; our ambassador to Rome; heir to the throne; US President Donald Trump/Joe Biden; 90% of the votes cast; going home; all is not lost; all that glitters is not gold, etc.

Some typical, less trivial word order changes in English–Hungarian translation are the following:

- Clauses of the type *he/police/officials/etc. said* are better transferred to initial position in Hungarian:
  A military truck carrying more than 2,000 hand-grenades caught fire in southern Norway, police said.
  A rendőrség közölte, hogy Dél-Norvégiában kigyulladt egy katonai tehergépkocsi, amely több mint 2000 kézigránátot szállított.

- Adverbials are often fronted:
  A military truck carrying more than 2,000 hand-grenades caught fire in southern Norway.
  Dél-Norvégiában kigyulladt egy katonai tehergépkocsi, amely több mint 2000 kézigránátot szállított.

- The order of main and subordinate clause may be reversed:
  The driver raced through the village and stopped in an open field before it exploded.
  Mielőtt a jármű felrobbant, a vezető átszáguldott a falun, és egy nyílt mezőn állt meg.

- The subject-predicate order may be reversed if the subject is too long:
  A military truck carrying more than 2,000 hand-grenades caught fire in southern Norway.
  Dél-Norvégiában kigyulladt egy katonai tehergépkocsi, amely több mint 2000 kézigránátot szállított.

- Word order often has to be reversed in translating appositive phrases:
  Boris Johnson brit miniszterelnök – Prime Minister Boris Johnson

Adaptation

Adaptation is often used in translating culture-specific items. This operation means that the SL expression, which has no equivalent in the TL, is replaced by a TL expression that has a similar role in the TL culture. For example, in translating the word *pálinka* into English, we may choose to borrow the Hungarian word, or use a more general word like *brandy*, or may choose to use the word *whisky*. The last solution would be adaptation. In a similar way, the sentence (from a newspaper article) *Tepertőt ettek zacsiból* could be translated literally (*They were eating cracklings from paper bags*) or using adaptation, replacing *tepertőt* with something that would be culturally similar, e.g., *They were eating fish and chips bought from a Chinese takeaway.*

11.7 Parallels between language teaching and Translation Studies

In the 1950s, both FLT and TS wanted to solve its problems with help from Contrastive Linguistics. Both focused on structural contrasts at the sentence level, and both found that the problems of communication cannot be solved by linguistics alone. As a result, in the 1960s and 1970s both foreign language teaching methodology and translation studies switched to a multi-factor approach.

11.8 Machine translation

In the 1950s, researchers had high hopes of MT. The idea of MT was based on the underlying assumption that translation was a matter of overcoming linguistic contrasts between language systems. Source language syntactic structures had to be exchanged for TL structures. However, it soon appeared that MT cannot deliver the goods, it cannot replace human translation. Indeed, it could not even approximate the quality of human translation. In the 1960s, in the wake of the ALPAC report[101], research on MT in the US was abandoned, and it re-started only much later.

11.8.1 Neural machine translation

Recent machine translation engines, such as *Google Translate* and *DeepL Translate,* make use of artificial neural networks. These networks are trained on large bilingual *text corpora*, containing millions of translated texts. They are very good at translating non-literary, informative texts, e.g. news items or specialised texts ('szakszövegek'). These text types contain a lot of formulaic expressions (collocations and lexical phrases) and the same technical terms and register-specific expressions occur in most texts, therefore it is relatively easy for the machine to find the correspondent for a given term or register-specific collocation. Consider these examples:

[101] ALPAC (Automatic Language Processing Advisory Committee) was a committee of seven scientists led by John R. Pierce, established in 1964 by the U. S. Government in order to evaluate the progress in computational linguistics in general and machine translation in particular. Its report, issued in 1966, gained notoriety for being very skeptical of research done in machine translation so far, and emphasizing the need for basic research in computational linguistics; this eventually caused the U. S. Government to reduce its funding of the topic dramatically. (From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia)

News item	
Július 28-án este 11 óra körül Gyulaváriban egy családi ház kertje felett kb. 15 méter magasan hangtalanul lebegett egy megközelítően 10 méter átmérőjű tárgy. Az oldalán sárgás színű fények voltak láthatóak. A repülő szerkezet lassan forgott az óra járásával azonos irányban, majd megállt. Ekkor már az egész család az objektumot nézte, nyolc ablakot tudtak megszámolni rajta. A tárgy néhány perc múlva ismét forogni kezdett, majd vízszintes irányban, hihetetlen gyorsasággal elrepült. *Valószínűleg ugyanazt a tárgyat látták másnap hajnalban Orosháza környékén is.*	*On 28 July, at around 11 pm, an object approximately 10 metres in diameter hovered silently about 15 metres above the garden of a family house in Gyulavári. Yellowish lights were visible on its sides. The flying object rotated slowly in a clockwise direction and then stopped. By then the whole family *was looking at the object, and they *could count eight windows. After a few minutes, the object began to rotate again and then flew away horizontally at incredible speed. The same object was probably seen the next day at dawn near Orosháza.* *Translated with* www.DeepL.com/Translator *(free version)*

The translation is perfectly acceptable; the sentence *By then the whole family *was looking at the object, and they *could count eight windows* contains some infelicities that can easily be corrected.

Specialized text		
	Google Translate	DeepL Translate
A karbamid lassan ható nitrogénműtrágya, melynek használatával redukálható a nitrogénveszteség. Talajba bedolgozva még magasabb hőmérséklet és nedvesség-tartalom esetén is jelentősen lecsökkenthető a gáz halmaz-állapotú veszteség. *Megfelelően alkalmazva, magas hatóanyagtartalmának köszönhetően a karbamid gazdaságos és költség-hatékony nitrogénforrás. Termékünk főleg kapás-növények nitrogénellátására ajánlott, maximum enyhén savanyú talajokon.*[102]	*Urea is a slow-acting nitrogen fertilizer that can be used to reduce nitrogen loss. By incorporating it into the soil, even at higher temperatures and humidity, the gaseous loss can be significantly reduced. Used properly, urea is an economical and cost-effective source of nitrogen due to its high active ingredient content. Our product is mainly recommended for the nitrogen supply of biting plants on maximally acidic soils.*[103]	*Urea is a slow-acting nitrogen fertiliser that can be used to reduce nitrogen losses. When applied to soil, even at higher temperatures and moisture contents, gaseous losses can be significantly reduced. When properly applied, urea is an economical and cost-effective source of nitrogen due to its high active ingredient content. Our product is mainly recommended for the supply of nitrogen to catch crops in soils with a maximum of slightly acidic conditions.*[104]

102 https://www.kite.hu/mutragya/nitrogen-mutragyak/karbamid/39/17 Accessed 21.02.2022.
103 Accessed 21.02.2022.
104 Accessed 21.02.2022.

These translations are also perfectly acceptable, there are only two problematic places, the term *kapásnövények* and the phrase *maximum enyhén savanyú talajokon*. Neither MT engine was able to find the correct English term for *kapásnövény.* (According to the online dictionary https://hu.glosbe.com/en/hu, it is *row crop* or *root crop*.) Translation of the phrase *maximum enyhén savanyú talajokon* proved difficult to translate because the source text is unclear: what it wants to say is that "*its use on highly acidic soils is not recommended, but on slightly acidic soils it can be applied.*" This problem highlights the fact that MT engines cannot be expected to interpret badly written source texts or carry out transfer operations based on world (cultural) knowledge.

Literary texts in which pragmatic meanings, connotations and culture-specific items abound and the TL reader's cognitive environment is very different from that of the SL reader, may be more difficult for MT. Consider this example from Úri muri[105]:

Úri Muri	MT (DeepL Translate)	Human translation
– A templomunk, gróf úr, azért fordul a hátával a városnak, mert ezt még a törökök építették, osztán Mekka felé kellett fordítani a fejét. Mert gróf úr, Mária Terézia ő császári felsége elrendelte, hogy a kálvinisták ne építhessenek semmiféle templomot, így osztán a kálvinisták a szolnoki basához fordultak segítségért, ammeg azt mondta, építhetnek, de a tornyának Mekka felé kell fordulni. Így osztán Mekka ide, Mekka oda, mondták az atyafiak, inkább mekkázunk, de legyik templom azistenit, gróf úr.	*– Our temple, Count, turns its back on the city because it was built by the Turks and then had to turn its head towards Mecca. Because Count, Maria Theresa, her imperial highness, ordered the Calvinists not to build any church, so the Calvinists turned to the bassa of Solnok for help, who said they could build it, but the tower had to face Mecca. So, Mecca here, Mecca there, the brothers said, we'd rather build a church, but a church for God's sake, Count.*[106]	*The reason our church has its back to the town, Count, is that actually it was built by the Turks, so it had to point towards Mecca. Because Her Imperial Majesty Maria Theresa had commanded that the Calvinists couldn't build a church at all, so they turned to the Pasha of Szolnok for help, and he said they could build, but the tower had to face Mecca. So then, never mind which way Mecca is, they said, the devils, so we'll face Mecca, but let's have a church, damn it."*[107]

It must be noted that the quality of machine translation is improving day by day, as shown by the Google translation in Task 8 below. The translations above may have improved by the time you read this. Occasional lapses still occur, as in the translation of an unpublished seminar paper:

[105] Móricz Zs. 1982. *Úri muri*. Budapest: Móra. http://mek.oszk.hu/01400/01431/01431.htm Accessed 21.02.2022.

[106] Accessed 21.02.2022.

[107] Móricz, Zs. 2008. *Very Merry,* Translated by Adams, B. Budapest: Corvina.

A Shakespeare dráma Nádasdy Ádám által készített újrafordításában a szállóigék erősen eltérő formában jelennek meg.
In the re-translation of the Shakespeare drama by Ádám Nádasdy, the hotel verbs appear in a very different form.[108]

11.8.2 Post-editing

The speed and low cost of machine-translation may offset its potential imperfections. However, it may be necessary to improve the quality of machine-translated texts. The process of correcting machine translation output is called *post-editing.* It is important to note that post-editing may be limited to correcting obvious mistakes to make the text understandable or it may undertake a full stylistic revision, depending on the quality requirements of the client. It is important to distinguish *usability* from *quality*: a poor-quality translation may be usable in given circumstances, while the higher costs of a high-quality translation may not be justified.

11.9 Tasks

1. Translate.
She is a heavy drinker.
All teachers are bluffers.
He refused to comment.
The weather report says it's going to rain.
The past ten years have witnessed major changes in our educational system.
Szerintem nem jön el.
A sztrájk következtében megbénult (bring to a standstill) a főváros közlekedése.
A 19. sz. első felében Magyarországon jelentős gazdasági és politikai fejlődés ment végbe.

2. Translate, using antonymic translation.
Nem jutott eszembe, hogy felhívjam.
A tűz okát még nem derítették ki.
A diplomáciai kapcsolatokat csak a rendszerváltás után állították helyre.

3. Translate, using addition.
the Mediterranean; the Pacific coast; the mayor of Alexandria, Va.; a Fradi; az István, a király; a Muzsikás

[108] Google Translate, accessed 06.09.2020.

4. Translate, using distribution.

A. *On the escalators in the underground dogs must be carried.*
The summit meeting opened amid heavy security.

B. *cigányozik; zsidózik; magyarkodik; a sajtó bulvárosodása; vasárnapi vendéglősködés*

5. Identify the transfer operations in these translations.

Despite its unfortunate appearance on April Fool's Day, the notice was a serious attempt to keep local people informed. – Bár szerencsétlen módon éppen április elsején jelent meg, a közlemény komoly kísérlet volt a helyi lakosság tájékoztatására.
The last decade has seen a rise in violence. – Az utóbbi évtized során nőtt az erőszakos cselekmények száma.
This was the hardest-hit area. – A természeti csapás ezt a területet sújtotta a legjobban.
There was a growl. – Egy kutya morgása hallatszott.

6. Identify the transfer operations in this translation.[109]

Now it is the autumn again; the people (1) are all coming back. The recess of summer is over, when holidays are taken (2), newspapers shrink, and history itself seems momentarily to falter and stop (3). But the papers are thickening and filling (4) again; things seem to be happening (5); back from Corfu and Sete, Positano and Leningrad, the people are parking their cars and campers (6) in their drives (7), and opening their diaries (8), and calling up other people on the phone. The deckchairs on the beach (9) have been put away, and a weak sun (10) shines on the promenade (11); there is fresh fighting in Vietnam, while McGovern campaigns (12) ineffectually against Nixon. In the chemist's shops (13) in town, they have removed the sunglasses and the insect-bite lotions (14), for the summer visitors have left, and have stocked up on sleeping tablets (15) and Librium (16), the staples of the year-round trade; there is direct rule in Ulster (17),	*Újra ősz van; lassan mindenki (1) visszatér. Vége a nyári szünetnek, amikor az emberek nyaralni mennek (2), az újságok összezsugorodnak, s a történelem is mintha megtorpanna (3) egy pillanatra. Az újságok ismét duzzadnak, és megtelnek mindenfélével (4); ismét események esnek (5); Korfuról és Setéről, Positanóból és Leningrádból visszatérve az emberek beállnak autóikkal és lakókocsijaikkal (6) a kerti betonsávra (7), felütik határidőnaplóikat (8), és felhívják egymást telefonon. A nyugágyakat már behordták a tengerpart homokjáról (9), és a parti sétányra (11) erőtlen nap fénye (10) süt; új harcok Vietnamban, McGovern eredménytelen választási hadjáratot folytat (12) Nixon ellen. Bent a városban, mivel a nyári turisták már távoztak, a drogériákból (13) elszállították a napszemüvegeket és a szúnyogcsípés elleni kenőcsöket (14), és újra feltöltötték altató- és idegnyugtatókészleteiket; (15,16); Ulsterban megszűnt a tartományi önkormányzat (17), a Falls*

[109] Adapted from Heltai, P. 1990. *Fordítás az angol nyelvvizsgán*. Budapest: Elektrokoop.

and a gunbattle has taken place in the Falls Road. The new autumn colours are (18) in the boutiques; there is (19) now on the market a fresh intrauterine device (20) reckoned to be ninty-nine per cent safe (21). Everywhere there are new developments, new indignities; the intelligent people (22) survey (23) the autumn world, and liberal and radical hackles rise (24), and fresh faces are about (25), and the sun shines fitfully (26), and the telephones ring. So, sensing the climate (27), some people called the Kirks, a well-known (28) couple (29), decide to have a party (30)[110].	*Roadon lövöldözés történt. A butikokban megjelentek (18) az őszi divatszínek, és újfajta mechanikus fogamzásgátló eszköz (20) kapható (19), mely állítólag kilencvenkilenc százalékos védelmet biztosít (21). Mindenfelé új fejlemények, új méltatlanságok; az entellektüellek (22) körbehordozzák tekintetüket (23) az őszi világon; liberális és radikális pulykakakasgigákon méregtől borzolódik a toll (24), új arcokat látni (25), a nap görcsösen erőlködve (26) süt, és felcsengenek a telefonok. Ezért Kirk és felesége, ez a széles körben ismert (28) házaspár (29), mivel megszagolta az időváltozást a levegőben (27), úgy dönt, hogy bulit (30) rendez*[111].

7. Study the following Google translation of a literary text. Discuss why the machine mistranslated some parts of the text. Compare the translation with a human translation.

Source text[112]	**Google Translate** Last accessed 21.10.2020	**DeepL Translate** Last accessed 21.02.2022	**Human translation**[113]
Akkor újra töltött. A szódavíz makrancoskodott, s Csuli félrespriccelt vele egy kicsit, akkor az asszony nyaka közé egy nagyot. *– Nincs húsvét, tekintetes úr – nevetett rá a menyecske, és kifordult a szobából, nyakából, füléből rázva a vizet.* *Az urak hangosan, harsányan nevettek.*	*Then he charged again. The soda water was tangled, and Chuli squirted it aside a little, then a big one between the woman's neck.* *'It's not Easter, gentleman,' the milfs laughed at him, turning away from the room, shaking the water from his neck and ears.* *The gentlemen laughed loudly and loudly.*	*Then it charged again. The soda water splashed, and Chuli splashed a little, then a big one between her neck.* *– "It's not Easter, sir," laughed the daughter-in-law, and turned out of the room, shaking the water from her neck and ears.* *The gentlemen laughed loudly and boisterously.*	*Then he refilled the glasses. The soda-water was very lively, and Csuli sprayed it about a little, then quite a lot near the woman's neck.* *'It's not Easter, Your Honour'*[114]*, she laughed at him and left the room, wiping the water from her ear and neck.* *The urak laughed loudly, raucously.*

[110] Malcolm Bradbury: *The History Man*. London: Secker and Warburg, 1975.

[111] Malcolm Bradbury: *A történelem bizalmasa*. Ford. Takács Ferenc. Európa: Budapest, 1979.

[112] Móricz Zs. 1982. *Úri muri*, Budapest, Móra. http://mek.oszk.hu/01400/01431/01431.htm

[113] Móricz, Zs. 2008. *Very Merry*, Translated by Adams, B. Budapest, Corvina.

[114] Translator's note: "A reference to the custom of splashing girls with water at Easter-time; this is believed to be a relic of prehistoric human sacrifice to lakes and rivers."

8. Compare the following source text to its google translation. How much post-editing is necessary?

Source text	Google translation
Tovább nőtt a foglalkoztatás *2013. február 26. 9:35* *A KSH legfrissebb adatai szerint továbbra is töretlen a foglalkoztatottság növekedése. A 2012. november – 2013. januári időszakban 39 ezer fővel dolgoztak többen, mint egy évvel korábban. Így a 15–74 év közötti foglalkoztatottak létszáma 3 millió 816 ezerről 3 millió 855 ezer főre emelkedett. Immár 30. hónapja növekszik a foglalkoztatottak száma az előző év azonos időszakához viszonyítva. A foglalkoztatási mutatók javulása mindkét nem, valamint az összes korcsoport esetében is megfigyelhető.*[115]	***Employment continued to grow*** *February 26, 2013 9:35 AM* *According to the latest data from the CSO, employment growth remains unbroken. In the period from November 2012 to January 2013, 39,000 more people worked than a year earlier. Thus, the number of employees aged 15–74 increased from 3 million 816 thousand to 3 million 855 thousand. For the 30th month now, the number of employees has been increasing compared to the same period last year. Improvements in employment rates can be observed for both sexes and for all age groups.*[116]

9. Post-edit the following google translation. Discuss the causes of occasional mistakes.

A tunguz-rejtély: Még mindig nem tudni, mi pusztított	**The tunguz mystery: you always don't know what destroyed**
TITOKZATOS Kutatók már százhét éve próbálkoznak a Tunguz-rejtély megfejtésével, de jobb híján mást nem mondanak, mint azt, hogy az maga a tökéletes bűntény: belülről bezárt szoba, van egy hulla, de nincs fegyver, tettes és indíték. *1908 június 30-án reggel 7 óra 13 perckor a Vlagyivosztok felé robogó transzszibériai expressz utasait az eget keresztülhasító fénycsóva, majd a napot is elhomályosító villanás kápráztatta el. Percek múlva a rázkódó talaj miatt kisiklással fenyegetett szerelvény vészfékezéssel megállt. A vonatról leszálló utasoknak pillanatok alatt megperzselődött az arca az intenzív elektromágneses sugárzástól – idézi a korabeli tudósításokat a toochee.reblog.hu portál.*	*MYSTERIOUS Researchers have been trying to solve the Tunguz mystery for a hundred and seven years, but for nothing short of saying that it is the perfect crime itself: a room locked inside, there is a corpse, but no weapons, perpetrators and motives. On June 30, 1908, at 7:13 a.m., the Trans-Siberian express passengers scurrying toward Vladivostok were dazzled by a beam of light breaking through the sky and then by a flash that obscured the sun. Minutes later, the train, which was threatened with derailment due to the shaking ground, stopped with emergency braking. The face of the passengers disembarking from the train was scorched in an instant from the intense electromagnetic radiation – the toochee.reblog.*

115 kormany.hu/hu/nemzetgazdasagi-miniszterium/hirek/tovabb-nott-a-foglalkoztatas. Last accessed 28.02.2013.

116 Google Translate. Last accessed 25.10.2020.

„Felvillant a hatalmas fény. Egy óriási tűzgolyó takarta el az eget…" – mesélte a tunguzi eseményekről a hírre kiérkező hírlapíróknak Szergej Szemjonovics földműves. Az emberiség írott történelmének egyik legrejtélyesebb katasztrófájáról jóval többet azóta sem derített ki a tudomány.[117]	*hu portal quotes contemporary reports. "The huge light flashed. A huge fireball covered the sky…," said farmer Sergei Semyonovich to news reporters about the events in Tunguz. Science has not discovered much more about one of the most mysterious disasters in the written history of mankind ever since.*[118]

[117] Blikk, 12.10.2015.
[118] Google Translate. Accessed 16.11.2020.

Chapter 12

GENERAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HUNGARIAN AND ENGLISH

This chapter will be practically a summary of the most important contrasts between English and Hungarian, and their effect on learnability, covered in the preceding chapters. It will also include a short discussion of underlying typological contrasts.

It must be repeated (see the *Foreword*) that the aim of this book is not to discuss theoretical issues related to linguistic contrasts, but to study the effects of contrasts on the learning of English by Hungarians, and that the discussion heavily relies on the author's teaching experience.

12.1 Typological Differences: The Morphological Level

Linguistic typology classifies languages mainly from the morphological and the syntactic point of view. From this point of view English is a more or less *analytic* language, in which each morpheme tends to form a separate word, while Hungarian is an *agglutinating* language, in which a word includes several morphemes. With regard to the number of morphemes in a word, analytic languages tend to have one morpheme per word, while *synthetic* languages have several morphemes. Forgács (2007: 29) gives the following example to illustrate this difference between Hungarian and German:

barátaimékéit

- *barát*: root morpheme ('friend')
- *ai*: plural ending of possession ('birtoktöbbesítő jel')
- *m*: marker of possessor ('birtokos személyjel')
- *ék*: derivational suffix ('képző')
- *é*: marker of possession ('birtokjel')
- *i*: plural marker of possession
- *t*: case marker: accusative ('tárgyrag')

In Germanic languages, like German and English, the morphemes corresponding to the Hungarian endings will be distributed over several independent words. The above word form could be expressed in English in the following way (note that not all the Hungarian morphemes are expressed in English):

those of my friends (or those belonging to my friends)

A consequence of this typological difference is that Hungarian learners must learn to redistribute the meanings included in a word form over several words. Surprisingly, this difference is not difficult to learn. No Hungarian learner will try to say **friends-my* instead of *my friends* or invent an English ending to mark the accusative in English. Consider another simple example:

a barátaiddal – *with your friends*

Experience shows that after learning the preposition *with* and the possessive determiner *your*, Hungarian learners will not find it difficult to use such phrases.

This confirms the claim made against classical contrastive linguistics, namely that a difference does not automatically lead to difficulty of learning. The same can be observed in many other areas of phonology, morphology, and syntax. There is little difficulty when a feature of L1 Hungarian is absent in L2 English, or when two or more L1 forms correspond to one L2 form. For instance, a characteristic feature of Hungarian phonology and morphology is vowel harmony, responsible for the various allomorphs of adverbial endings like *-on/en/ön, -ban/ben*, etc. Equating these with a single English form (preposition) does not create any difficulty for Hungarian learners; the difficulty comes with learning which preposition must be used in different contexts. Geminate consonants and palatalised consonants, as well as some vowels (*ö, ü*) do not exist in English, and of course learning not to use them does not cause any difficulty (except for the difficulty of learning that double consonants appearing in the spelling of English words are not pronounced as geminate consonants). It is not difficult to learn that except in the 3rd person singular there are no verbal inflections in English – the only difficulty comes from overextending this rule and not using the *-s* ending where it is necessary.

In a similar way, the difficulty of learning English verb forms derives from the difficulty of learning the meanings of the various English auxiliaries and their manipulation in questions and negation, which we may regard as an inherent difficulty of English, rather than from the analytic/synthetic contrast. Consider this example:

Elolvashatnám? – *Could I read it?*

The learning task here is learning the meaning and use of the auxiliary *could* and the rules of question formation. Having to express 1st person and object with a pronoun instead of a verbal ending and using an auxiliary instead of a suffix (*-hat/het*) does not appear to be difficult.

12.2 Typological Differences: The Syntactic Level

From the syntactic point of view, languages are usually classified on the basis of word order. The two commonest word orders are SVO (subject, verb, object) and SOV (subject, object, verb). English belongs to the SVO type; Hungarian is a topic-prominent language, in which both the SVO and the SOV word orders may occur.

Hungarian sentences are divided into a topic part and a predicate part, with the topic functioning as the logical subject of the predication (É. Kiss 2002: 2). Put another way, English is a *subject-prominent* language, while Hungarian is *topic-prominent*. In English, the topic and the grammatical subject roles have to coincide. The relative freedom of word order of Hungarian is made possible by its rich morphology.

This typological difference may cause difficulties for Hungarian learners: it takes some time to get used to a fixed word order and to learn that changes in emphasis, at least in writing, cannot be expressed by simply changing the word order as in Hungarian.

The rich morphology of Hungarian is also responsible for another characteristic feature: it is a *pro-drop* language, i.e., subject and object pronouns are dropped unless they are stressed. However, this feature is rarely transferred into English: Hungarian learners will easily switch to using pronouns instead of verbal inflections.

12.3 Typological Differences: The Phonological And Prosodic Level

The main differences at the phonological level concern differences in the phoneme inventories of English and Hungarian, in the vowel and consonant systems as well as in the articulation of individual vowels and consonants and in phonological processes like assimilation. Negative transfer, i.e., substitution of L1 Hungarian speech sounds for L2 English sounds is common, and some pronunciation mistakes may easily fossilise, resulting in a typical *Hunglish accent.*

Even more important are the *prosodic* differences. According to language typology, Hungarian is a *syllable-timed language*, while English is *stress-timed*. This difference has serious consequences for Hungarian learners. One consequence of stress-timing is that unstressed syllables in English will be weak, and the vowels of weak syllables will be reduced. Vowel reduction does not occur in Hungarian. Consequently, a distinctive feature of a Hunglish accent is non-reduction of vowels in weak syllables (including unstressed function words). Forgács (2007: 44) notes the same problem in connection with German: Hungarian learners tend to pronounce the German ending *-en* too clearly. The difficulties for a Hungarian learner of English are compounded by variable

stress. While in Hungarian stress is always on the first syllable, in English it may fall on any syllable. Stress placement sometimes looks quite arbitrary: compare the pronunciation of *'label* and *la'pel*. Stress may change in the same word depending on word class (compare *'reject* as noun and *re'ject* as verb) and on suffixation (compare *grammar* and *grammatical*, *analyse* and *analysis*). And, to top it all, the pronunciation of vowels depends on stress (as well as free or covered position).

This typological difference, then, appears to cause major problems for Hungarian learners, not only in speaking English, but also in understanding spoken English (cf. Ringbom 1992, see Chapter 3).

12.4 Typological Differences: The Lexico-Semantic Level

Lexical typology is defined as the "characteristic ways in which language [...] packages semantic material into words" (Lehrer 1992: 249). It studies how semantic domains are distributed among the lexical items across languages, how languages categorise particular domains, and the relations among lexical items in the lexicon, e.g., semantic motivation (semantic shifts, leading to polysemy) and morphological motivation (derivational patterns, including compounding).

It is more difficult to find regularities or recurrent patterns in the differences between the lexicons of any two languages. However, certain general tendencies have been observed (Heltai 1996).

There are many differences in the *hierarchical organisation of vocabulary*. In general, English tends to offer a more detailed segmentation of the world than Hungarian: it tends to have a higher number of hyponyms, while there may be no superordinate word where Hungarian has one.

Where hierarchical organisation does show a difference, it can in most cases be linked to *differences in motivation*, so it can be concluded that the most important difference lies in motivation: English seems to prefer semantic motivation (transfer of meaning), while Hungarian makes more extensive use of morphological motivation (derivation and compounding). This difference also accounts for the fact that English words tend to be more polysemous than Hungarian ones. English words may acquire new meanings without any formal change, while Hungarian tends to signal transferred meaning by affixes or compounding. The extent of polysemy is further increased in actual use, where English tends to abbreviate compounds and leave certain meaning components out in compounds and collocations.

The effect of all these contrasts is that in the area of vocabulary learning *one-to-two correspondences* (divergence) are common, creating serious learning difficulty and leading to interference and eventually to fossilisation. In

translation this contrast often makes it necessary to add something to explicitate the meaning of the English lexeme or collocation.

In an influential book, Hawkins (1986) proposed that English shows a greater distance between form and content than German. The same appears to be true in the case of English and Hungarian.

12.5 Differences On The Discourse And Pragmatic Level

Contrasts on the level of discourse are less salient and quantifiable than those on any other level of language, and language typology research is not directed at this level. Text organisational patterns have been shown to be different in different languages and cultures, as shown by contrastive rhetoric. The differences between English and Hungarian in this area are addressed in academic writing courses, and as a result, scientific Hungarian writing tends to adopt Anglo-Saxon norms.

Cross-cultural pragmatics research has uncovered many pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic differences between different languages, often related to cultural values. At present, however, we have no systematic account of the contrasts between English and Hungarian pragmatic behaviour.

House (2006) proposed the term *communicative style* to describe discourse and pragmatic differences between English and German writing. She identifies five "dimensions" that make up communicative style: indirectness/directness, orientation towards persons/orientation towards content, orientation towards addressee/orientation towards self, implicitness/explicitness and verbal routine/ad-hoc formulation, with the first term in each pair referring to English. It is very likely that Hungarian is closer to German along most dimensions, and that these differences are often responsible for the transfer operations needed in English–Hungarian and Hungarian–English translation.

KEY TO THE TASKS

Please note that solutions cannot be offered for all the tasks in the book. Some of the tasks call for discussion based on the participants' experience or individual views; some tasks have multiple solutions, and some tasks involve the use of machine translation. In such cases no solutions are included in this Key.

Chapter 1

Preview: Grammatical differences

Translate the following sentences into English and note the differences. Compare the use of the definite article in Hungarian and English.
Time is money. Knowledge is power. Life is hard. The life of a farmer is hard. The town was founded at the time of the Hungarian Conquest. The fortress was built in Roman times. Milk is white, grass is green, roses are red, and violets are blue. The milkman put the milk on the doorstep. I drank red wine last night. The wine that I drank last night was red. The grass is too tall, I have to mow it. The water was cold. Why does grass grow and why does the lion roar?

How do you translate olyan into English?
A diplomat is someone who can send you to hell in a way that will make you look forward to the journey.
A fairy tale is a horror story that prepares children for reading the papers.
Sin is an act that violates a moral principle.
A crime is an act that breaks the law.

Complete and translate into Hungarian. How many definite articles will there be in the English text and in the Hungarian translation?

One definite article: *The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence.*

Preview: Lexical differences

Translate these two short texts into English.

A. Why does the bull attack (charge) when it sees something red? (a red cloth/rag/muleta/the colour red)

As is well known, bullfighting is still very popular in Spain. Its fans (Aficionados) believe that anything red will irritate the bull and will provoke an attack. Therefore, the matador must swing (wave) a red cape in front of the bull to irritate it, while being careful (taking care) to avoid the bull's charge/attack.
The truth is that (As a matter of fact) he would achieve exactly the same result if he used a white, green or even black cape. The bull is colour blind.

B. Fires
A Birmingham firefighter was frying chips when he was called to a fire / when the alarm was raised. The brave man / He pushed aside the pan and rushed to do his duty. Soon he was called to another incident – his own home was on fire. He had forgotten to turn off the cooker.

Preview: Pragmatic differences

What formulas do you use in particular situations? How do you say in English?
It will not happen again. (Nothing.) / Enjoy your meal! Excuse me, could you tell me the way to the station? I beg your pardon?
What background knowledge do you need to interpret culture-bound references like this?
You need to know that President Lincoln was assassinated during a theatre play.

Task 3

Some pronunciation errors may be identidied if you listen to the video. E.g., the last syllable of *capitol* and *student* are pronounced with a full vowel; *parliamentary* is pronounced as ˌpɑː(r)ləˈment(ə)ri, etc. You are invited to find some more yourself. From the grammatical and lexical point of view, the most conspicuous interference errors can be found in the phrase *on the very famous Eötvös Lóránd science university.*

Chapter 2

Task 1: Transferability of polysemous words

szemébe néz	*looks into someone's eye*
szembetegség	*eye disease*
szembogár	*pupil*
szemcsepp	*eye drops*
szemérem	*modesty*
szemdoktor	*eye doctor, ophthalmologist*
szemfesték	*eye shadow*
szemfog	*canine (tooth), eye tooth*
szemgolyó	*eyeball*
szemhéj	*eyelid*
szemüveg	*(eye)glasses, spectacles*
jó a szeme	*s/he has a very good eye*
szem elől téveszt	*lose sight of*
szem előtt tart	*keep in mind*
szeme se rebben	*does not bat an eyelid*
egy szem barack	*an apricot / a peach*
láncszem	*link*
pávaszem	*peacock eye*

megtörte a jeget	*broke the ice*
diót tör	*crack nuts*
töri a lábát cipő	*the shoes hurt his/her feet*
töri az angolt	*speak a broken English*
rátör vkire	*raid, spring on, round (up)on, break in on sy*
töri a fejét	*rack one's brain*

Task 2: Transferability of polysemous words: translate these sentences.

A. *Gyakorolja az angol nyelvtant világos nyelvtani magyarázatokkal és gyakorlati feladatokkal.*
Ezek a nyelvtani gyakorlatok böngészőben, tableten és okostelefonon is elvégezhetők.
Minden reggel tornázni szoktam.
A COP26 Éghajlatváltozási csúcstalálkozó csak reklámfogásnak bizonyult.
Az orosz és fehérorosz csapatok folytatják közös hadgyakorlatukat Ukrajna közelében.
Több mozgásra van szükséged. Sétálj egy kicsit többet.

B. *We listened to music.*
Listen to me.
We were both silent.

There were different objects on the table.
I'll take up this course/subject next year.
The first task is to define the research subject.
Let's stick to the subject / keep to the point.
Let's get to the point / get down to business,
The road was wet. The soil was moist. The air was humid.

Task 3: Transferability of compounds: Fill in the table below as shown by the examples.

	I know this word, it is …	Would you use its literal translation?	Yes	No
fogkrém	tooth paste			
nádcukor		cane-sugar	x	
kapufa	goal post	gate-tree		x
anyaország	mother country	mother country		
anyarozs	ergot	mother rye		
árnyékkormány	shadow government	shadow government		
árnyékszék	privy, lavatory, out-house	shadow chair		
autóversenyző	racing driver	car competitor		
babkávé	bean coffee	bean coffee		
cipőkrém	shoe polish/paste	shoe cream		
csavarhúzó	screwdriver	screw puller		
csavarkulcs	wrench	screw key		
csónakház	boat house	boat house		
dugóhúzó	corkscrew	cork puller		
epekő	kidney stone	kidney stone		
ételmérgezés	food poisoning	food poisoning		
ezüstvasárnap	[the second Sunday before Christmas]	Silver Sunday		
faliújság	notice board	wallpaper		
géppuska	machine-gun	machine rifle		
harangvirág	bellflower	bellflower		
hengerfej	cylinder head	cylinder head		
hócipő	snow shoes	snow shoes		
hóeke	snow plough	snow plough		
hólánc	snow chain	snow chain		
hómunkás	snow worker	snow worker		

hóvirág	snowdrop	snow flower		
hordágy	stretcher	carrier bed		
hullaház	morgue/mortuary	corpse house		
húsleves	meat soup	meat soup		
madárijesztő	scarecrow	bird scarer		
repülőgép-anyahajó	aircraft carrier	airplane mother ship		
selyemhernyó	silkworm	silk caterpillar		
szalmaözvegy	grass widow	straw widow		
szélkakas	weathercock/weathervane	wind cock		
szemétkosár	rubbish basket	rubbish basket		
szentszék	Holy See	holy chair		
szoknyavadász	skirt chaser / womanizer	skirt hunter		
szomorúfűz	weeping willow	sad willow		
szószék	pulpit	word chair		
telefonkönyv	telephone book / directory	telephone book		
tornacipő	gymnastics shoes	gymnastics shoes		
toronyóra	tower clock	tower clock		
toronyugrás	high dive	tower jump		
tükörkép	mirror image	mirror picture		
tűlevél	needle leaf	needle leaf		
uborkasaláta	cucumber salad	cucumber salad		
üvegház	glass house	glass house		
véredény	blood vessel	blood dish		
virágvasárnap	Palm Sunday	Flower Sunday		

Task 4: Read this composition by a Hungarian learner of English, then fill in the table below.

Note: In many cases it is difficult to determine the source of error. The solutions presented below may be open to debate.

Dogs and English people

	Error due to L1 interference	Error due to something else	Correct form
Britains		x	British people
shelter a cat		x	give shelter to (?)
an owner		?	to have (?)
as a child		x	like
dedicated		x	touching
They bring them		?	?
The food	x		Food
Britains		x	British people
envy	x?	x?	[The whole sentence must be re-written.]
the blinds	x		blind people
weights		x	weight
don't afraid		x	are not afraid
during walk the dog	x		when they walk the dog
full with	x		full of
I myself is		x	I myself am

Chapter 3

Preview: Discuss the following questions.

- Does /w/ exist in the Hungarian phonological system? No.
- How do Hungarians who speak English pronounce *Windows, Washington, wellness* in Hungarian discourse? Discuss your experience.
- How difficult is it for Hungarian learners to acquire the correct pronunciation of this English speech sound? Discuss your experience.
- Is it difficult only at the beginner stage, or do mistakes recur at later stages? Discuss your experience.
- Does the speech sound schwa /ə/ occur in Hungarian/English? It occurs in Hungarian only occasionally, in hesitation. In English it occurs regularly in unstressed syllables.
- Is it a phoneme in Hungarian/English? It is not considered to be an individual phoneme in either Hungarian or English. In English it is a frequently occurring vowel phone, but it does not have a distinctive role, it does not distinguish one word from another.
- In what positions does it occur in English? In unstressed positions.
- How do Hungarians who do not speak English pronounce names like *Thatcher, farmer, hamburger*? Why? *Szecsör, farmer, hamburger* – they use the closest Hungarian vowel or use a spelling pronunciation.
- Is it difficult for Hungarians to acquire the correct pronunciation of this English speech sound? Discuss your experience.
- Is it difficult only at the beginner stage, or do mistakes recur at later stages? Discuss your experience.

Task 2: Identify the kind of difference between the following English phonemes, allophones or suprasegmental features and their Hungarian counterparts.

Note: To some of the questions, only tentative answers can be given. Subjective assessments of difficulty may be different.

1. No difference: H sz[119] – E /s/
2. Convergent phenomena: H b and bb – E /b/
3. Item absent in L2: Hungarian ö and ü
4. Different distribution H /ŋ/ – E /ŋ/
5. Item absent in L1: E /w/
6. Divergent phenomena: H e – E /e/ and /æ/
7. Criss-cross correspondences, some difference in articulation or phonetic features: H r – E /r/

[119] For simplicity, phonetic transcription is used only for the E sounds; the corresponding Hungarian sounds are represented by the letters that usually denote them.

Contrast	Type of difference (1-7)	Perceived/experienced degree of difficulty
H short i and u – E /ɪ/ & /ʊ/	7 (?)	quite difficult
H long í and ú – E /i:/ and /u:/	1	no difficulty
H ?[120] – E central vowel /ə/	3	of medium difficulty
H ?[121] – E diphthongs	3	of medium difficulty
H zs – E /ʒ/	4	easy
H e – E /e/ and /æ/	6	difficult
H r – E /r/	7	quite difficult; interference from spelling aggravates the problem
H l – E clear /l/ and dark /ɫ/	5, 6	extremely difficult
H p, t, k – E /p/, /t/ and /k/	7	of medium difficulty
H l, m, n – E syllabic /l/, /m/, /n/	5	quite difficult
H Ø[122] – E dental fricatives /θ/, /ð/	5	extremely difficult
H Ø[123] – E labio-velar /w/	5	quite difficult
H /ŋ/ – E /ŋ/	4	quite difficult
H geminate consonants – E simple consonants	2	would be easy, interference from spelling may cause problems
unstressed vowels in H – unstressed vowels in E	7 (?)	variable difficulty
unstressed function words in H – unstressed function words in E	7 (?)	very difficult, interference from spelling aggravates the problem

[120] The question mark indicates that this sound does not occur in carefully articulated speech and does not have phonemic status in Hungarian.
[121] The question mark indicates that diphthongs occur in some Hungarian dialects, but not in the standard variety.
[122] Ø – No corresponding Hungarian phoneme.
[123] Ø – No corresponding Hungarian phoneme.

Task 3: Observe sentence rhythm and the pronunciation of weak forms in these corny jokes. Identify the reduced vowels.

<table>
<tr>
<td>– My wife’s gone to the West Indies.
– Jamaica? /dʒəˈmeɪkə/
– No, she went of her own accord. /əv hər/
(Wodehouse: Uncle Dynamite)</td>
<td>– (A feleségem) Indonéziába utazott.
– Dzsakarta?
– Nem is én kényszerítettem.
(Wodehouse: Dinamit bácsi.
Fordította: Révbíró T.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td colspan="2">And these, ladies, are the famous Falls. /əθə/
If you can stop talking for a moment, you’ll be able to hear their mighty roar. /kən/ /fərə/ /tə/
J. W. Lewis (1977)</td>
</tr>
</table>

Chapter 4

Contrasts in verbs and verb phrases – preview

Translate. *Several Pentagon documents, some of them classified, were found in a Texas prison. They were found in the drawers of 10 desks that had been shipped to El Paso County Jail for repair. This is not the first case of this kind in the United States: two years ago, for example, State Department files were found in a prison near Washington.*

Task 2: Discuss the semantic role of the nouns in the underlined phrases. Translate these sentences into Hungarian.

Chicago. – The United States' biggest winter storm (external causer) so far shut down schools and roads and left hundreds without electricity as it swept the Midwest. Up to 9 inches of snow (external causer) in northern Ohio shut down scores of roads and highways. Blowing snow (external causer) brought traffic to a standstill in parts of north-west Ohio. A windstorm (external causer) in North Carolina knocked out power for several hours.
Chicago. – Az Egyesült Államok eddigi legnagyobb téli vihara miatt iskolákat és az utakat kellett be-, illetve lezárni, és többszázan maradtak áram nélkül, miközben a vihar végigsöpört a közép-nyugaton. Ohio északi részén mintegy a több mint 20 centiméteres hó miatt több tucat utat és autópályát kellett lezárni. A hófúvás miatt Ohio északnyugati részén leállt a forgalom. Észak-Karolinában a szélvihar miatt több órán át szünetelt az áramellátás.

Task 3: Translate into English, changing the subject.

Snowfall brought traffic to a standstill *The end of the 19th century* witnessed/saw Britain fall behind Germany in its industrial production. *The first half the 19th century* witnessed/saw significant economic and political development in Hungary. *A hurricane hit Cuba at the end of the week. The windstorm made it almost impossible to harvest sugarcane by machine. The hurricane almost completely destroyed the crop on an area of about 2,000 hectares.*

Task 4: Translate into English, using the short passive.

The door opened / was opened. The band was formed ten years ago. The theory is based on a false premise. Few monuments of have have been preserved in Hungary. The forecast has been proven wrong. This phenomenon is not limited to the capital. No one was injured. There was a noise / a noise was heard from the next room. The kingdom is lost. Suspicion has been allayed/dispelled. Soon our chances will be reduced to zero. The meeting was cancelled. During the storm, many were left without shelter. Most of the crop was destroyed. Unless appropriate measures are taken, the country's food production could be at risk.

I was brought up in the countryside. New proposals have been put forward. In the end, the goods were not delivered to / did not reach the company.

Task 5: Translate into English, paying attention to obligatory complements.

A.

My girlfriend had already heard something about the disco at the University of Technology. One Friday night, at around ten o'clock, we passed the disco on our way home and decided to drop in. But when we learned that the entrance fee was 2,000 forints, we changed our minds. However, we became aware of an argument going on at the entrance. The doorman was shouting very aggressively at a girl who wanted to get in / insisted on going in, and the young man/guy was holding her back. The girl refused to listen to him. What happened next was outrageous: the well-built young man grabbed the girl, threw her to the ground with all his strength, then pulled her up and pushed her down the stairs. My girlfriend and I looked/stared at the young man petrified / in utter shock. The terrifying/horrifying/disgusting scene stunned/shocked/overwhelmed all the people standing outside. Unfortunately, there was no one to teach this sadistic man a lesson.

B.

At the press conference introducing/before/preceding the event, Miklós Csepregi, President of the Hungarian Advertising Association, told journalists that companies operating in Hungary spend more than HUF 100 billion on advertising every year.

Task 7: Some of the verbs in the following passage have been changed from the active into the passive or vice versa. Restore the original text.

The Great Wall of China

The Great Wall of China was built the in the third century BC to keep out the raiding Tartars of Mongolia. Probably over 500,000 workers were employed to build it. Even today, the wall is in a wonderful state of preservation.

This marvellous structure was constructed of brick and stone. The sides have battlements through which weapons could be discharged.

All large cities of China were provided with similar walls, and the gates were closed at night to give the citizens protection against surprise attack.

Task 9: Complete these sentences with *have, take, make, give or do.*
It's time we made arrangements for the journey. Suddenly our guide gave an exclamation. I haven't yet had/taken my bath. She has done research into molecular biology. In the morning I do exercises. The firm made a survey of people's attitude to foreigners. 'Don't make personal remarks', said Alice sternly. The sight of the accident gave me a shock. Go and have/get a wash. I

gave the car a good wash. The storm has done a lot of damage to the roof. She makes good use of her abilities. She gave a deep sigh. Has the police made an arrest? He often makes inappropriate comments, unintentionally giving offence.

Task 10: Translate into English:
He gave a deep sigh. I made a complaint. He gave a polite bow. The news gave me a real shock. S/he had a good cry. I had a big/great fall. S/he made a deep impression on me. They had an affair. We made contact. We made an analysis of the data. We were having/taking a shower. Give me a ring if I should forget. He gave a stranged laugh. He gave mi a strange look. I gave the car a thorough wash. He made a visit to London. The Foreign Secretary paid a visit to Brussels. The President made a long speech. Everybody pay attention. Last year we made a tour of Greece. We have made efforts to solve the problem. In the 19th century, the science of biology made significant progress. This chemical gives excellent control of scutch.

Task 11: Transform.
We analysed the samples thoroughly. → We made a thorough analysis of the samples.
We made a careful analysis of the data.
We made a calculation of the costs.
The professor performed a complete removal of the tumor.
I have made a thorough study of this reaction.
Scientists performed regular measurements of the changes.
They conducted direct observation of the birds' habits.
He conducted accurate determinations of radiation levels.

Task 12: Use predicative adjectives instead of verbs in these sentences.
Choose from this list: *ignorant of, critical of, supportive of, dominant, objectionable*
He was ignorant of my problems. This habit is objectionable to most women. Arsenal were dominatant after the break. The report was critical of the quality of education. Our department is supportive of all students who wish to engage in research.

Task 14: Use the predicative adjectives in the list below or participles to translate these sentences into English.
The whole building was on fire. He was/felt ashamed. I'm afraid it won't be enough. Everyone was silent. The child was already asleep. The president is supportive of our activities. I'm very averse to frogs. I'm aware (that) what I'm doing is wrong. Be careful not to make him angry. I am confident you'll do well

in your exam. This move is not conducive to the public good. Sulfuric acid is corrosive to metals. He's always critical of me. Some children are disruptive. I'm not completely dependent on my parents. You're delirious. His look was expressive of fear. This text is imitatative of Shakespeare's style. This measure is indicative of the weakness of the government. This response was reflective of his personality. Nice to meet you. He was bored. He was terrified of his wife. He was strongly opposed to the plan. You're wrong/mistaken.

Task 17: Translate into English.

S/he set aside the money; S/he put aside the book/work/file/proposal/their cares/prejudices;

S/he set something aside for a rainy day; setting aside everything else.

I packed (up) my things. Last night some hooligans beat him up. S/he threw up/was sick all over my beautiful carpets. He looked all over me. We watched the movie to the end. He walked down the street.

I found out his name. I wrote the letter. Wait, I'll find the letter. Will you listen to my poem?

They broke down/open the door. The leg of the chair broke. S/he broke my heart. The vase broke (into pieces).

He threw the towel aside. The young people moved aside/withdrew. You have been misled. I mistranslated that sentence.

Chapter 5

THE ARTICLES – PREVIEW

Supply articles, where necessary:

___ Ships of _the__ desert.___ Camels were domesticated more than 3,000 years ago, and to this day, ___ humans depend on them for ___ transport across ___ arid environments. They can easily carry _an__ extra 200 pounds (90 kilograms) while walking 20 miles (32 kilometers) _a__ day in _the__ harsh desert. ___ Camels travel as fast as ___ horses but can also endure ___ legendary periods of ___ time without ___food or ___water. ___Humans have used ___camels for their wool, milk, meat, leather, and even dung, which can be used for ___ fuel.
_The__ dromedary camel, also known as _the__ Arabian camel, exists today only as _a__ domesticated animal. About 90 percent of the world's camels are ___drom-edaries. There are two types of ___Bactrian camels: wild and domesticated. ___Wild Bactrian camels are much trimmer, with smaller humps and less hair, than ___ domesticated Bactrian camels[124].

Task 1: Translate.

A. Az iparosodott országok gazdaságai strukturális változásokon mennek keresztül.
Az iskolai munka nem jelent kihívást az okos gyerekek elméjének.
Támogatta a munkás-, a felszabadítási és a békemozgalma(ka)t.
Több mint egymillió munkás dolgozik a bányászatban és a mezőgazdaságban.

B. These people lead hard lives. The price of petrol is rising both in the domestic and international markets. The proposals have been discussed by both the French and the British governments. The plans are to link the rail systems of the two countries. Senior officials from the English and French transport ministries are meeting in London today to discuss the details. British Rail will back the plan that wins the approval of both the British and the French governments.
The flight crew were aware that something was wrong. Liverpool have won the League Cup. In the second half Arsenal were dominant. My family are opposing this marriage. The police were baffled. The government is planning to cut teachers' salaries further.
I have no information on the arrival of the plane. The evidence is quite clear. He gave me a lot of good advice. This job requires a lot of knowledge. We have

[124] https://animals.sandiegozoo.org/animals/camel. Last accessed 05.12.2020.

a lot of evidence against it. The company has/have* bought a lot of new equipment. I have heard a lot of interesting news, but it is not good news. All the information we have received has been proven wrong.
* GB: *have*, US: *has*

Task 2: The number of definite articles will depend to some extent on the grammatical structure of particular sentences in the translation, but in the original English text (see below) the correspondents of the following words appear without an article:

a *veszély, a hivatásos bokszolás ,* ***a*** *sárkányrepülés,* ***a*** *gyaloglás,* ***a*** *bankrablók,* ***a*** *tűzharcok,* ***a*** *biztonság,* ***a*** *lépcső,* ***a*** *konyha,* ***a*** *fürdőszoba,* ***a*** *csúszós padló,* ***a*** *gyűrött szőnyeg,* ***a*** *kés, villa, olló,* ***a*** *gáz,* ***a*** *forró víz,* ***az*** *elektromos áram*

Note that in some cases the indefinite article is used in English where the Hungarian translation uses the definite article:

az *őrült – only* ***a*** *fool;* ***az*** *ágy* ***a*** *bed;* ***a*** *földrengés –* ***an*** *earthquake*

The situation is hopeless, but not serious
Noone disagrees that many of our most routine activities contain some element of Ø danger. How many dangers should we be willing to risk? Reason and common sense suggest a minimum, or, if possible, none at all. Even the most daring among us will consider Ø professional boxing or Ø hang-gliding too risky. Driving? Think of how many people are killed or maimed in traffic accidents every day. But even Ø walking entails certain dangers that soon reveal themselves to the searching view of Ø reason. Ø Pickpockets, Ø exhaust fumes, Ø collapsing buildings, Ø shoot-outs between Ø bank robbers and the police, Ø incandescents fragments of Ø American or Soviet space satellites probes – the list of dangers is endless and only a fool will blindly expose himself to these Ø risks. It is certainly safer to stay home. But even there one's safety is relative. At home there are Ø stairs, the well-known assorted dangers of Ø kitchens and Ø bathrooms, Ø slippery floors or Ø crumpled carpets, Ø knives, Ø forks, to say nothing of Ø gas, Ø hot water and Ø electricity. The only reasonable conclusion would be to stay in Ø bed. But what protection does a bed offer in the event of an earthquake? And what if one develops Ø bedsores?[125]

[125] Watzlawick, Paul: *The situation is hopeless, but not serious.* W. W. Norton, 1993.

Task 3: Translate the following text, paying special attention to pre- and postmodifiers.

Note: the translation presented below is just one possible translation. There may be many other equally good or acceptable translations of particular words, phrases or sentences.

A medált viselő britek nem nyerők

Nagy-Britanniában a legutáltabb ember valószínűleg egy olyan ingatlanügynök, akinek közel ülő szemei és vörös szakálla van, fehér zokniban jár és a nyakában egy medál lóg. Zsebében mobil van, kertjében kerti törpe. Rendszeresen kocog. A felesége fehér tűsarkúban jár. De a legrosszabb, hogy Des O'Connor rajongó.

Egy új felmérés szerint ilyesfajta emberekre már elég egyetlen pillantást vetnünk, hogy erős ellenszenvet váltsanak ki.

Az azonnal utálatot kiváltó emberek között vannak továbbá az NDK-s szandált viselők, a Millwall-drukkerek, és a döglötthal kézfogásúak is.

A Sound Thinking londoni székhelyű vezetési tanácsadó cég kocsmákban, a földalattiban és buszokon kérdezte ki az embereket utálatuk kedvenc célpontjairól. A válaszok alapján összeállítottak egy 50-es listát a gúnyolódásnak leginkább kitett társadalmi csoportokról.

A biztos befutók az utáltság versenyében a németek, akik a medence melletti összes napozóágyat lefoglalják, a vörhenyes hajúak, a döglötthal kézfogásúak, a volvósok és a Bacardi-kóla ivók.

Ide tartoznak még a mobiltelefon-tulajdonosok és azok, akiknek kerti törpéjük van; az amerikai turisták, a rendszeresen kocogók, a közelülő szemű emberek, a kopaszodást ráfésüléssel leplezö férfiak és furcsa módon a bigott, előítéletes emberek is.

Mark Brown, a cég alapítója egy menedzsereknek szóló tanfolyam részeként állította össze a listát. Szerinte jobban kellene törekednünk arra, hogy ne skatulyázzuk be rögtön az embereket.

– Persze nem az a cél, hogy az mindenkit határozott nézetek nélküli, lagymatag liberálissá tegyünk, de szeretnénk, ha az emberek inkább egészséges kétellyel közelítenének másokhoz, mintsem előítélettel.

Barbara Cartland, az extravagáns megjelenésű írónőt elmondása szerint a Sound Thinking 50-es listáján szereplő kedvenc gyűlöletek egyike sem zavarja, de neki is van bőven sajátja.

„Amit mindennél jobban utálok, az a nadrágos nők. És utálom a kezeslábast is" – mondta.

A tévés Robert Kilroy-Silk gondolkodás nélkül vágta rá a kérdésre: „Utálom azokat, akik mindenféle hülyeségeket aggatnak a visszapillantó tükörre – bolyhos kockát, boxkesztyűt, na meg bólogató kutyát. Micsoda barmok!"

Des O'Connor, maga is előítéletek tárgya, nem nyilatkozott. De a sajtóügynöke, Clifford Elson felnyögött: „Istenem! már megint a régi nóta… szegény öreg Des! Újra és újra előjön a téma, de az biztos, hogy neki nincsenek előítéletei!"

Task 4: Translate into English.

The words that were spoken made a deep impression on me. The figures presented prove nothing. I will send you the books you requested. He swept up the broken glass. The problem under investigation was one of organisation. The results obtained are shown in Table 1. I bought a used car. The methods used met the objective. The events described made him/her sad. The books ordered arrived. The trends analysed continue. Among the names mentioned was that of the President. The phenomena observed do not prove the hypothesis.
The calculated averages are flawed. The whole idea contradicts established scientific thinking.

Task 5: Transform.

visit to Rome; demand for wages, crisis in Iraq; advisor on national security, attack by guerrillas, co-operation on defence, conference on security, articles of high-quality, materials of low cost, centre for scientific research, students from Paris;
the October crisis; on foreign affairs; guerrilla attack; security conference, high-quality articles; anniversary preparations; crisis report, supermarket hold-up, the 1967 resolution

Task 6: Translate into English.

his/her talks with Indian leaders, the festivals in the late eighties, an event of extraordinary importance, decision on arms sales, arms sales to developing countries, decision on arms sales to developing countries, Chinese exports to Hungary, a painting of great value, a man of no use, an event of no importance, a room with a view, a room without a view, his/her speech at the Congress on January 20, the woman in the flat below, passengers on a plane to London, visit to London, letter to the editor, decision of vital importance

Task 7: Supply the missing prepositions.

The need for change was urgent. The reasons for his behaviour became clear only later. His visit to the island was short. He was reading a novel by Lawrence. In a letter to the President, the Prime Minister repeated his proposal. There is strong support for our plan. He is an expert on Italian opera. He bought a painting by Raffaello. His emphasis on security was justified. I have a guest from Australia. An attack by terrorists was expected. He was standing in front of a picture by Monet. I bought a book on butterflies.

Task 8: Identify the participle attributes in this Hungarian text and translate them into English.

a Vlagyivosztok felé robogó transzszibériai expressz utasait	*passengers on the Trans-Siberian express speeding towards / bound for Vladivostok*
az eget keresztülhasító fénycsóva	*a beam of light splitting the sky*
a napot is elhomályosító villanás	*a flash blotting out/obscuring the sun*
a rázkódó talaj miatt kisiklással fenyegetett szerelvény	*the shaking ground threatening to derail the train*
a vonatról leszálló utasok	*passengers getting off the train*
a hírre kiérkező hírlapírók	*journalists arriving to follow up the event*
az emberiség írott történelmének egyik legrejtélyesebb katasztrófája	*one of the most mysterious disasters in recorded history*
a közép-szibériai Tunguszka és Léna folyók által határolt tajga	*the taiga between the Tunguska and Lena rivers in central Siberia*
egy, a légkörünkbe behatolt űrbéli objektum	*a cosmic object entering the Earth's atmosphere*
A robbanás okozta lökéshullám	*The shock wave caused by the explosion*
az epicentrumtól 65 kilométeres távolságban fekvő Vanavara település lakói	*the people of Vanavara, 65 kilometres from the epicentre / residents of Vanavara, located 65 kilometres from the epicentre*
A helyszíntől 500 kilométerrel távolabb közlekedő transzszibériai vasútvonal utazóközönsége	*Passengers on the Trans-Siberian express 500 kilometres away*
Az epicentrumban fekvő és a paradox módon állva maradt fák maradványairól Telegráf-erdőnek elnevezett terület	*In the impact zone, named Telegraph Forest after the remnants of trees that paradoxically remained standing upright,*
a rejtélyes csapáspont közelében nyáját legeltető jakut rénszarvas-pásztor	*a reindeer herd grazing his animals near the mysterious impact site*
a felrobbanó objektum fényereje	*the light intensity of the exploding object*
a kidőlt fákkal borított, végeláthatatlannak tűnő kísérteties táj	*the ghostly/eerie, seemingly endless landscape of fallen/flattened trees*
a vélelmezett, nagy tömegű meteorral	*with a presumed high-mass meteorite*

Task 9: Translate into English.

lost world, motorists who were/have been fined, the events described, recorded facts, adult boy, hidden talent, fallen angel, broken promise, vanished treasure, endangered species

Task 10: Translate into Hungarian.
Mark Brown cégalapító; Robert Kilroy-Silk televíziós személyiség; Oroszi László magyar feltaláló; MOL, a magyar nemzeti olaj- és gázipari csoport; Hernádi Zsolt, a MOL elnök-vezérigazgatója; Robert Line ügyvezető igazgató; a Renault francia járműipari csoport.

Task 11: Translate into English and add an appositive.
MTI, the Hungarian News Agency; the football club Fradi; TT, the Swedish news agency; Reuter News Agency; academician István Kovács – president of the academy, István Kovács; Minister of Economy Béla Fukar; the word dog; the exhibition History of Animal Breeding; page B; section C

Task 12: Translate into Hungarian.
A Rómában tartott konferencián 300 résztvevő volt jelen.
A múlt héten Rómában tartott gazdasági együttműködési konferencián 300 résztvevő volt jelen.
A delegációt vezető professzor biológus.
A jövő héten Budapesten megrendezésre kerülő biokémiai kutatásról szóló konferencián a Lyoni Egyetem tízfős küldöttségét vezető professzor biológus.
Az egyik megvitatott kérdés a menekülthelyzet volt.
Donald Trump amerikai elnök és Macron francia elnök múlt heti párizsi tárgyalásain az egyik megvitatott kérdés a menekülthelyzet volt.

Task 14: Translate.
increase in prices, increase in student numbers, increase in sea level, increase in farm sizes, increase in car sales, increase in expenditure, increase in exports

Task 15: Transform.
Intended for beginners, the new coursebook provides practice in basic grammar and vocabulary.
Avoided by most tourists, this small town is an oasis of tranquillity.
"Played" by several million people, tourism is like a game of musical chairs.
An intelligent woman, Mrs. Smith understood her situation perfectly well.

Chapter 6

Task 1: Translate these sentences.

A.

which, that, what, which, which, that, which, what;
The fact that / Just because you haven't received a greeting card from Mars doesn't mean there's no life on it.
Those who / If you haven't seen it, you won't believe it.
Those who can, do; those who can't, teach.

B.

Most men are selfish. Most students are lazy. Most animals have good hearing. Most of the men who knew Mary were in love with her. Most of the women who worked in the office liked old Mr. Brown. Most of the students who read the book came to the meeting. Most of the animals in this zoo are used to visitors. Most hardworking people make a decent living.

C.

All teachers know that children can only listen for 20 minutes. All the teachers knew that Mary was the best student in the school. Some teachers don't always listen to the children. Some of the teachers didn't listen to the principal's speech. All Italians like music. Most Italians like music. Some Italians like music. All the children in this class like music.

D.

How lucky some people are! Some people like cats, some don't. Some people can't stand cats. Some are enthusiastic about jazz, some are not.
Some of the boys liked maths, some didn't. Most of the tests were excellent. Some of what he said was not new. Most of the problems are easy to solve. Most of the kids didn't know what they wanted. Some of the exercises were useless. I understood most of the speech.

E.

Not so long ago I liked Hungarian football. I hate men who wear medals around their necks. Horse meat is almost as expensive as beef. Some kids don't like spinach. I'm like a squeezed lemon. I don't use words I don't know. We have some agricultural products that are competitive in EU markets. For me, it is particularly important to have a job that leaves me some time for gardening. Don't worry, it's not that important.

F.

Another wind storm swept through the city on Saturday. I bought another English grammar book. That's another blow to our budget. I would like to make

one more comment. He warned us again / He gave us another warning. He had to wait another day.

G.

Several articles on this subject have appeared in the press. This year there have been more road accidents than last year. Several ships were near the Titanic but they ignored the distress signals. I offered him £10, but he wants more. There were several reasons for the disaster. A good skilled worker gets higher wages than an engineer. There was one more glass on the table. There'll be more accidents next year.

H.

Aki betegszabadságot vesz ki, amikor nem beteg, az bűnöző, mert időt lop – állítja Dennis Challenger ausztrál kriminológus.
Ha találkozol valakivel egy buliban, tudni akarod a nevét, mielőtt ágyba ugranál vele.

I.

Everyone put your coats on. Someone left their hat on the bench. Everyone went home to their families.

Task 2: Correct these sentences.

Most people / Most of the people went home. Peter drank most of the wine. He who laughs last laughs best. There will be rain in several parts of the country. I want a wife who can cook well.

Task 3: Identify the reference of the pronoun it in the following passage. Check the translation of the pronoun using DeepL Translate.

1. *it – chlorophyl;* 2. *it – chlorophyl*; 3. *it – chlorophyl*; 4. *it – atmosphere*; 5. *it – chlorophyl*; 6. *it – chlorophyl*; 7. *it – chlorophyl*; 8. *it – chlorophyl*

Task 4: Translate.

We parted good friends. He came home tired. Williams won the match easily. He ran away angrily. He hit his opponent hard. Speak out loud / Speak up. Walk slowly / slow. Speak softly and carry a big stick. He nodded in a friendly way. He smiled kindly. He died young. He drove fast. He gave a hoarse laugh. He patted me on the shoulder in a friendly way. Strangely / Oddly enough, I like him/her. Ideally, a basketball player is over six feet twenty. He had a hard time understanding me. I'd love to drink it.

Task 5: Cross out the phrases that cannot follow the preposition.

Now everything depends on	*the weather.*
	the soldiers.
	how the soldiers will fight.
Jill did not object to	*what Jack had said to her.*
	Jack's proposal.
	Jack holding her hand.

Task 6: Join the pairs of phrases below to make sentences.

I am surprised that you bought a Japanese car / at you(r) buying a Japanese car; We decided to go down to the river / on going down to the river; I informed him that his uncle had arrived / about his uncle's arrival; he insisted that I should lay down my burden by the riverside; Jill was afraid that Jack would go up the hill alone to fetch a pail of water; All girls are aware (of the fact) that it is dangerous to walk in the spooky old woods alone; Alice was sorry she had mentioned / about mentioning her cat to the mouse; The Queen of Hearts was sure that Alice was guilty / of Alice's guilt.

Task 7: Correct.

He spoke about having been involved in an accident.
Alice complained that she didn't know who she was.
Robinson at last resigned himself to the fact that he was alone on the island.
I condemned him for using dirty tricks to win the race.

Task 8: Translate.

I'll wait for you outside the school. I'll meet you outside the cinema.
In case of fire, use the emergency exit.
In the case of young children a speedy recovery may be expected. / Young children are expected to recover quickly.
While typing the letter, I noticed a mistake.
His glasses fell off during the fight.
While the child was running about, they lost sight of him.
It is difficult to talk while running.
We don't talk while eating.
I can't concentrate under these circumstances.
My grandfather worked at/for Tungsram.
In building the underground, all previous experience was taken into account.
In our country this drug is not yet very common.
There is a bird sitting in the tree.
Late at night I was walking at the end of the village and I saw three stars in the sky.

This device does not work at low temperatures.
At 1975 prices, you could buy 10 pairs of shoes for that amount.
The new drug has not yet been tested on humans.
Under Hungarian law, drivers are not allowed to drink alcohol.
He was driving at 120 kilometres per hour. The analyses were carried out using a computer program. This is tantamount to a disaster. I spent the time fishing. The police, backed by the army, dispersed the demonstration. I drive to work / I go to work by car. He crashed into a parked truck at high speed. Have you met him? I don't know what happened to me. As he got older, he got more and more permissive. On Sunday my friend and I went to the movies. This tablecloth is hand-embroidered. He's accused of murder. He made a fortune by evading taxes. This is a remarkable achievement even by European standards. He sent me a message through his secretary that he's not available today. He fed the leftovers to dogs. My girlfriend and I looked at the young man in shock.
On the first I'll leave the firm. This time there was no problem. He failed the exam three times. The situation was slightly better ten years ago. Domestic beer consumption has increased by 5.7 percent. My brother is two years older than me. We were informed of the decision. The pub is across the street from the shop. I can't take advantage of this offer. These bacteria are resistant to existing drugs. The doorman was yelling at a boy extremely aggressively. We do not live by bread alone. This car runs on gas. The spinning wheel was driven by hand power. The room is full of mosquitoes. He filled the glasses with champagne. Reading this book made me a better person. After the work was done, they had a beer. Don't count your chickens before they are hatched. *After the ceremony, the prince and his girlfriend left separately. There are dozens of people like that / You can find people like that by the dozen. He drank beer by the bucketful. We brought frankincense in an iron pot. If someone throws stones at you, throw back bread. I was glad to help him. She wrote a letter in / with great haste. He sent the letter by airmail. I signed my name in ink. He wrote the letter in pencil. He wrote the letter with / in his own hand. He looked at me with wide eyes. He sat cross-legged in front of me. He was hanging upside down. Peter is in hospital with a broken leg. I lay in bed, with my eyes open, thinking. This disease is directly related to alcohol consumption. The condition of some patients is closely linked to the change of seasons. This disease can be cured effectively. How much time do I spend doing sports? Lion women generally take advantage of the opportunities offered. If she marries a partner stronger than she is, this can be the cause of many conflicts. The Chief Veterinarian made an appeal to the public on Monday. These colleagues deal with the clients. It is not worth breeding pigs. Many people in this district are employed in agriculture. Job satisfaction does not necessarily mean that someone is doing a better job.*

Chapter 7

Task 3: translate.

(Ő) 20 évvel idősebb nálam. Egy magas rangú rendőrtiszt vezette a nyomozást. A folyó mentén teraszos szőlőültetvények vannak. A házsor[126] *négy házból állt. Don Antonio a teraszon napozott. Az állóhelyeken verekedés tört ki a drukkerek között. The lady was wearing a pretty summer dress. Don't get food on your dress! Peter bought this suit three years ago. They went to the children's wear department.*

Task 5: Translate.

I'm being serious / I mean it. I've given serious consideration to the proposal. We have suffered severe / heavy losses.
We've planted the potatoes. They rejected the idea. She aborted the child. She got the boy to marry her. S/he went too far. S/he threw the javelin.

Task 10: Translate these sentences.

According to *conservative* estimates the project will cost $10 billion.	Óvatos becslések szerint a projekt 10 milliárd dollárba fog kerülni.
She is a very poor teacher, she cannot *control* her class.	Nagyon gyenge tanár, nem tudja fegyelmezni az osztályát.
Foxes are pests that must be *controlled.*	A rókák kártevők (dúvadak), amelyeket irtani kell / amelyeknek a populációját szabályozni kell.
Intelligence reports indicated that a major attack was in preparation.	A hírszerzési jelentések azt jelezték, hogy nagyszabású támadás van előkészületben.
She greased the tin *liberally.*	Bőségesen megkente/kikente a tepsit.
His father was a Baptist *minister.*	Az apja baptista lelkész volt.
Motorists were warned to keep off the road because of icy conditions.	Az autósokat figyelmeztették, hogy a jeges útviszonyok miatt ne menjenek ki az utakra.

[126] *a row of similar houses joined together by their side walls (*egyforma épületekből álló összefüggő házsor):



He was a *pathetic figure*, standing there in his pyjamas.	Szánalmas alak volt, ahogy ott állt a pizsamájában.
This treatment does not help. Indeed, it does *positive* harm.	Ez a kezelés nem segít. Sőt, kifejezetten árt.
What do you propose in *specific* terms?	Mit javasol konkrétan?

Task 11: Study the Google translation[127] of these sentences. Which ones are correct/ incorrect?

H. sentence – English translation by Google Translate	**correct**	**incorrect**
A brit sportolók 10 aranyérmet nyertek az olimpián. British athletes have won 10 gold medals at the Olympics.	x	
Lemerült az akkumulátor. The battery is low.	x	
A tényleges költség sokkal nagyobb volt, mint a tervezett. The actual cost was much higher than planned.	x	
Három kombájn dolgozott a táblán. Three combine harvesters were working on the field.	x	
Összkomfortos lakást vettem. I bought an apartment with all comforts.	x	
Három hétig csak konzervet ettünk. For three weeks we ate only canned food.	x	
A tanárnő szigorú, de nem konzekvens. The teacher is strict but inconsistent.	x	
Nincs meleg víz, elromlott a bojler. No hot water, boiler broken.		x
Ez a prospektus sok hasznos utazási információt tartalmaz. This brochure contains many useful travel information.	x	x
Nincs gyakorlatom a fordításban. I have no practice in translation.		x
Nem vették fel az egyetemre, pedig protekciója is volt. He was not admitted to the university, though he had protection.		x
A doktor írt számomra egy receptet. The doctor wrote me a recipe.		x

127 Accessed 03.10.2020.

Preview: Important words and phrases

Important words[128]

to have a … ache – *valakinek fáj a …*
headache/stomachache/earache/toothache – *fejfájás/gyomorfájás/fülfájás/fogfájás*
to have a sore throat – *fáj a torka*
to have nausea/to have diarrhoea – *hányingere van/hasmenése van*
to be constipated – *szorulása van*
to be/feel sick – *rosszul van, hányingere van*
to have a temperature/a fever – *hőemelkedése van/láza van*
to feel dizzy – *szédül*
to examine – *megvizsgál*
serious – *komoly*
to feel worse/better – *rosszabbul/jobban érzi magát*
to take medicine – *gyógyszert szedni*
pill/tablet/painkiller – *pirula/tabletta/fájdalomcsillapító*

Important phrases

How do you feel? – *Hogy érzi magát?*
Not very well. – *Nem túl jól.*
I feel ill. / I feel sick. – *Betegnek érzem magam. / Rosszul vagyok.*
What's your problem? – *Mi a problémája?*
What can I do for you? – *Mit tehetek önért?*
I'm coughing. / My nose is running. – *Köhögök. / Folyik az orrom.*
Get undressed! I have to examine you! – *Vetkőzzön le! Meg kell vizsgálnom!*
All right. – *Rendben van.*
I don't see anything serious. – *Nem látok semmi komolyat.*
Do I have to take any medicine? – *Kell valamilyen gyógyszert szednem?*
Take these pills … times a day before/after your meals. – *Vegye be ezeket a tablettákat …alkalommal naponta, étkezések előtt/után.*

128 https://www.5percangol.hu/hasznos-parbeszedek/useful_dialogues_-at_the_doctors**.** Accessed 20.11.2020.

Task 1: Find four words that are related in meaning to the underlined words.

table	*star*	*coffee*	*turn*	*furniture*
	chair	*round*	*lie*	*sick*
crime	*offence*	*built-up area*	*commit*	*dunce*
	carry out	*sin*	*force*	*arson*

coffee table, round table – habitual collocations; *table* is a kind of furniture (hyponymy); *turn the tables* – an idiom

Offence is more or less synonymous with *crime,* but it seems to have a broader meaning*; crime* and *sin are* also synonymous to some extent, but *sin* is a moral, while *crime* a legal concept; *arson* is a kind of (hyponym) of *crime; commit a crime* is a collocation

Task 2: which of these phrases would you class as a. formal, b. neutral, and c. informal?

A. Formal:

Participants are kindly requested to remove their hats.
Convey to them our thanks.
Particular mention should be made of…
I am open to correction here.
Hereby I second the motion.
I propose to look briefly at the history of interest in the problem
before turning to an assessment of the present situation and approaches to its solution

B. Informal:

There's neither rhyme nor reason in his behaviour.
This will cook Arthur's goose.
All that glitters is not gold.
He's as blind as a bat.
I've been working like a dog.
I told him to keep off the grass.
I tell you he's a liar.
Go tell it to the marines, they will believe everything.
I have lots of other battles to fight.
Are you sure you're all right? – Stop nagging me; I'm perfectly all right.
Here I want to spend some time – ing
then spend some time on
I want to have a short peek at

C. Neutral:

If you don't accept me as your lover, I'll hang myself on a tree in front of your house.
Shakespeare is God.
There was nothing to be done; she had been dead some hours.
I have lots of other battles to fight.
What we could see was just an approaching train.
His death was caused by a substance that seemed to be a simple crystalline salt, but was in fact a powerful poison.

Task 3: Put these (underlined) multi-word units into the appropriate columns.

Idioms	Collocations	Lexical phrases
she was crying blue murder. *I'm in the red* *She's a bag of bones* *who brings home the bacon!* *don't lose heart.*	*So you are the Good Samaritan?* *No wonder that he never has any money.* *He told me a pack of lies.* *He drinks a lot.* *I'm looking for someone to help me.* *The whole afternoon roaming the streets.* *get a divorce.* *I made a mistake.* *He committed murder and was jailed for life.* *not in the mood* *I have a headache.* *in high spirits* *heavy smoker* *comitted teachers*	*Could you tell me the way to the Railway Station?* *I'm looking for someone to help me.* *How about some music?* *Would you like a cup of tea?* *I made a mistake and I am sorry.* *I'm not in the mood.* *I have a headache.* *I do apologize.* *It should be noted that*

Task 5: Find the English equivalents of these idiomatic phrases and proverbs and write them (only the English equivalent) in the appropriate column. If there is no equivalent or similar idiom, translate or explain the meaning.

	Equivalent with exactly the same meaning	Similar, but partly different in meaning	No equivalent	
			Can be translated	Can be explained
1	*Too many cooks spoil the broth.*			
2	*The pot calls the kettle black.*			
3	*I might as well talk to a brick wall.* *It is like water off a duck's back.*		*"It's like throwing peas against a brick wall" (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	
4	*Out of the frying pan into the fire.*			
5	*He drinks like a fish.*			
6		*Money talks.* *He who pays the piper calls the tune.*		
7		*It is no use crying over spilt milk.*	*"More was lost in the Battle of Mohács" (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	
8	*He sticks to his guns.*			
9	*A leopard cannot change its spots.*	*Old habits die hard.*		
10	*Weeds don't spoil.*			
11	*I wouldn't touch him with a barge-pole / a ten-foot pole*		*"I would not wipe my muddy boots in him", (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	

	Equivalent with exactly the same meaning	Similar, but partly different in meaning	No equivalent	
			Can be translated	Can be explained
12			*"The loft is full of promises", (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	*I am fed up with promises.*
13			*"My snow-boots are full" (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	*I am fed up with it.*
14	*A blind man may perchance hit the mark.* *Even a blind pig may occasionally pick up an acorn. (?)*	*A stopped clock is right twice a day.*		
15		*To stare like a stuck pig. (?)*	*"To stare like a calf at a new gate" (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	*to look in a confused way*
16				*I have already a lot of experience, I will not be easily fooled.*
17	*What has that got to do with it?*		*"What is the boot doing on the table?" (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	
18			*"A common horse has scars on his back" (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	*If you use something in common, no one will take care to use it properly or maintain it.*
19			*"He left them like St. Paul left the Wallachians" (as the Hungarian saying goes).*	*He was left behind unexpectedly. ?*
20		*God speed you!*		*You can go, I will not detain you.*

Task 7: Which words may be collocated with the following?

viscious	*circle, dog*
confirmed	*bachelor, liar*
heavy	*traffic, metal, industry, artillery, seas, etc.*
conclude	*a speech, agreement, deal, etc.*
submit	*a proposal, article, application, etc.*
rancid	*butter, smell*

Task 8: Which adjectives can you collocate with these nouns?

	coffee	*man*	*work*	*weather*	*time*	*smoker*
hard		+	+		+	
heavy			+	+	+	+
strong	+	+				

	hope	*probability*	*wish*	*opportunity*	*chance*	*possibility*
high	+	+			+	+
good	+	+	+	+	+	+
strong		+	+		+	+

Task 9: Which nouns can you collocate with these adjectives?

	high/low	*heavy/light*	*large/small*	*powerful*	*huge*
pressure	+	+			+
damage		+			+
earthquake				+	+
work		+			
fire			+		+
explosion			+	+	+
speed	+				
rain		+			
forest			+		+

Task 11: Translate these binomial expressions into English.
walk up and down, all sorts of odds and ends, last but not least, back and forth, black and white film, hot and cold running water, demand and supply, slowly but surely, strict but fair, law and order, sooner or later, over hedge and ditch, Ø ('always together')

Task 12: Identify the collocations, binomials, trinomials, idioms and other kinds of phrases in this text.

Coding:

Bold: lexical phrases
Italic: collocations
<u>Underlined: idiom/trinomial</u>

'You are not – **you will excuse my asking** – *in* actual *need of money*, Mr Leonides?'

'Income *tax*, **as you know**, is somewhat *heavy*, Chief-Inspector – but my income *amply suffices* for my needs – and for my wife's. Moreover, my father frequently *made us* all very generous *gifts*, and had any *emergency arisen*, he would have *come to the rescue* immediately.'

Philip added coldly and clearly:

'**I can assure you** that *I had no* financial *reason for desiring* my father*'s death,* Chief-Inspector.'

'**I am very sorry**, Mr Leonides, if you think I *suggested anything of the kind*. But we have to *get at all the facts*. Now **I'm afraid I must ask you** some rather *delicate questions*. They refer to the relations between your father and his wife. Were they *on happy terms* together?'

'**As far as I know**, perfectly.'

'No quarrels?'

'**I do not think so.**'

'There was a – *great disparity in* age?'

'There was.'

'Did you – **excuse me** – approve of your father's second marriage.'

'**My approval was not asked.'**

'That is not an answer, Mr Leonides.'

'Since you *press the point*, **I will say that** I *considered* the marriage *unwise*.'

'Did you remonstrate with your father about it.'

'When I heard of it, it was *an accomplished fact*.'

'*Rather a shock to* you – eh?'

Philip did not reply.

'Was there any *bad feeling about* the matter?'

'My father *was at perfect liberty to do as he pleased*.'

'Your relations with Mrs Leonides have been amicable?'

'Perfectly.'

'You are *on friendly terms* with her?'

'We very seldom meet.'

Chief Inspector Taverner <u>shifted his ground</u>.

'**Can you tell me something about** Mr Laurence Brown?'

'**I'm afraid** I can't. He was engaged by my father.'

'But he was engaged to teach your children, Mr Leonides.'

'True. My son was a sufferer from infantile paralysis – fortunately *a light case* – and it was *considered not advisable* to *send him to a public school.* My father suggested that he and my young daughter Josephine should have a private tutor – the *choice* at the time was rather *limited* – since the tutor *in question* must be *ineligible for military service.* This young man's credentials were satisfactory, my father and my aunt (who has always looked after the children's welfare) were satisfied, and I acquiesced. **I may add** that *I have no fault to find with* his teaching, which has been conscientious and adequate.'

'His living quarters are in your father's part of the house, not here?'

'There was more room up there.'

'Have you ever noticed – **I am sorry to ask this** – any *signs of intimacy* between Laurence Brown and your stepmother?'

'I have *had no opportunity* of observing *anything of the kind.*'

'Have you heard any gossip or tittle-tattle on the subject?'

'I don't listen to gossip or tittle-tattle, Chief-Inspector.'

'Very creditable,' said Inspector Taverner. 'so you've seen no evil, heard no evil, and aren't speaking any evil?'

'If you like to *put it that way,* Chief Inspector.'

Inspector Taverner got up.

'Well,' he said, '**thank you very much**, Mr Leonides.'

I followed him unobtrusively out of the room.

'Whew,' said Taverner, 'he's a cold fish!'

Task 14: Match the words in the first lines with those in the second.

adverse effect, bad cold, bare trees, big stick, bitter cold, black humour, blank paper, blind rage, blue murder, brief lull

bright blue eyes, broad daylight, brute force, clear idea, close observation, common sense, crisp snow, cruel jokes, deadly disease, illegitimate births

cooperative effort, editorial preface, glamorous blonde, historical scholarship, mental case, obsessive precision, prime candidate, ultimate aim, unpalatable truth, wintry weather

Task 16: Translate.

the results obtained, an experiment was set up/designed, the results are inconclusive, we concluded, we found a significant correlation, conclusively demonstrates, the results (obtained) so far, we have conducted research, is of fundamental importance

Task 17: to which registers do these collocations belong?

- Social psychology
- Agriculture (plant protection)
- Engineering
- Economics (stock exchange)

Task 18: Do this test.

1. Ready-made units include ___ .
   A. hyponyms B. synonyms C. lexical phrases D. register

2. Which of the following word pairs exemplifies the relation of hyponymy?
   A. *table/desk* B. *leg/foot* C. *pussy/cat* D. *planet/Venus*

3. Which of the following word pairs does NOT exemplify the relation of hyponymy?
   A. *oak/tree* B. *chicken/egg* C. *bread/food* D. *book/dictionary*

4. Which of the following word pairs exemplifies the relation of hyponymy?
   A. *vegetable; carrots* B. *tree; leaf* C. *insect; bird* D. *fruit; vegetable*

5. The sentence *I like all cats, except dogs* is unacceptable because …
   A. *cat* and *dog* are co-hyponyms B. *cat* and *dog* are antonyms
   C. *cat* and *dog* are synonyms D. *dog* is superodinate to *cat*

6. Mark the statement which is FALSE.
   A. Synonyms may have different collocational possibilities.
   B. Synonyms are interchangeable in any context.
   C. Synonyms may differ in the degree of formality.
   D. Synonyms may have different syntactic properties.

7. Which of the following word pairs exemplifies the relation of synonymy?
   A. *woman; man* B. *table; desk* C. *move; fly* D. *understand; comprehend*

8. Which of the following word pairs exemplifies the relation of synonymy?
   A. *voyage/journey* B. *animal/fish* C. *hard/soft* D. *building/skyscraper*

9. Which of the following word pairs does NOT exemplify the relation of synonymy?
   A. *short/brief* B. *hot/warm* C. *high/tall* D. *holy/sacred*

10. Which statement is TRUE?
   A. **Polysemy is pervasive in all human languages.**
   B. Polysemy is a relation between words with similar meanings.
   C. Polysemy is found only in scientific words.
   D. Polysemy is a relation between two words that mean the same.

11. Which of these is an idiom?
   A. *null and void* B. *aiding and abetting crime*
   C. ***this will cook Arthur's goose*** D. *all that glitters is not gold*

12. Which of these is an idiom?
   A. *a song and a dance* B. *we have to get at all the facts*
   C. *as far as I know* D. ***don't lose heart***

13. Which of these collocations is a habitual (unmarked) collocation?
   A. *to cook coffee* B. *to put an exam*
   C. ***to give a laugh*** D. *to bring up an example*

14. Which of these collocations is a habitual (unmarked) collocation?
   A. *lead a diary* B. ***lead a life*** C. *lead a car* D. *lead a household*

15. Which of these collocations is NOT a habitual collocation in English?
   A. *make room for sy* B. *make a noise* C. ***make homework*** D. *make a fuss*

16. Which of these collocations is NOT a habitual one?
   A. *badly need* B. *completely exhausted*
   C. *fully dressed* D. ***entirely interested***

17. Which of these words is NOT habitually collocated with *pass*?
   A. *the ball* B. *an exam* C. *time* D. ***hair***

18. Which of these words canNOT be related collocationally to *raw*?
   A. *meat* B. *deal* C. *egg* D. ***sea***

19. Which of these words cannot be related collocationally to *flow?*
   A. *river* B. ***deliberately*** C. *water* D. *tears*

20. Which of these words canNOT be related collocationally to *go*?
   A. *home* B. ***pineapples*** C. *wrong* D *without saying*

21. Which of these words can NOT be related collocationally to *blue*?
   A. *pale* B. *deep* C. *light* D. ***hard***

22. Which of these collocations is a marked (novel) collocation?
A. *broken promise* B. *broken heart* C. *broken furniture* D. *broken desire*

23. Which of these collocations is a marked (novel) collocation?
A. *fresh taste* B. *taste a wine* C. *taste sweet* D. *taste the bicycle*

24. Which of these collocations is marked?
A. *to develop one's knowledge* B. *to develop appendicitis*
C. *to develop a beard* D. *to develop a film*

25. Which of these collocations is marked?
A. *unprecedented event* B. *confirmed drunkard*
C. *habitual collocation* D. *hot-blooded murder*

26. Which of these collocations is marked?
A. *to wash one's hands* B. *to wash one's teeth*
C. *to wash one's face* D. *to wash easily*

27. The difficulty of learning collocations is due to the fact that they are … .
A. arbitrary B. language specific C. unpredictable D. All of A, B and C.

28. Marked collocations are very common in …
A. technical language B. advertisements
C. instructions for use D. bank statements

29. Everyday conversation is full of … collocations.
A. marked B. paradigmatic C. unmarked D. novel

30. Marked collocations are not very common in …
A. poetry B. magazine articles C. science textbooks D. advertisements

31. Which of the following statements is FALSE?
A. Collocations are language specific.
B. Collocations are unpredictable.
C. Collocations are usually transparent.
D. Collocations have pragmatic function.

32. Which of these sentences contains a binomial?
A. *His teaching was conscientious and adequate.*
B. *My father and my aunt were satisfied.*
C. *The agreement was declared null and void.*
D. *He put on his shoes and his hat.*

33. Which of the underlined phrases is a binomial?
   A. *Philip added coldly and clearly: 'My approval was not asked.'*
   B. *There's neither rhyme nor reason in his behaviour.*
   C. *Have you heard any gossip or tittle-tattle on the subject?*
   D. *He has a son and a daughter.*

34. Which of these sentences does NOT contain a binomial?
   A. *Your money or your life.* B. *On Saturday and Sunday we are closed.*
   C. *We have hot and cold running water.* D. *He was tall and handsome.*

35. Which of these binomials has been reversed?
   A. *fish and chips* B. *poor but honest*
   C. *tall and handsome* D. *demand and supply*

36. Which of these is a feature of binomials?
   A. The order of their constituents is fixed. B. They have a pragmatic function.
   C. They have idiotic meaning. D. They contain subordination.

37. Mark the statement which is FALSE.
   A. Binomials are multi-word units.
   B. The order of elements in a binomial cannot be reversed.
   C. Binomials have specific pragmatic functions.
   D. Most binomials are transparent.

38. Which of these sentences contains a trinomial?
   A. *He bought cheese, eggs and milk.*
   B. *We searched high and low, but could not find her.*
   C. *Will you tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth*?
   D. *Words, words, words.*

39. Which of the following is a lexical phrase?
   A. *you will excuse my asking* B. *in need of money*
   C. *living quarters* D. *signs of intimacy*

40. Which of the following is a lexical phrase?
   A. *to cut a long story short* B. *to kick the bucket*
   C. *to aid and abet crime* D. *to mount a rescue operation*

41. Which of the following is NOT a lexical phrase?
   A. *If you like to put it that way* B. *I am sorry to ask this*
   C. *he shifted his ground* D. *I can assure you that*

Chapter 9

Task 5: Negate emphatically.
No, it was in the 1930s that television was invented.
No, it was Röntgen who/that invented the X-ray machine.
No, it was in Tokyo that the last Olympic Games were held.
No, it is in the spring that most birds mate.

Task 8: Read the text and identify the two places where a cleft sentence could/would be used if you were to translate it into English!
1. Az oroszt manapság a szlovákok beszélik leginkább. – It is the Slovaks …
2. A legrosszabbul a bolgárok és a magyarok végeztek, akik közül a felmérés szerint csupán kilenc, illetve hét százalék ismeri a legelterjedtebb világnyelvet. – It is the Bulgarians and Hungarians …

Task 12: In the following newspaper article we find ellipsis in the first five sentences. does it contribute to text coherence? are these ellipses anaphoric, cataphoric or exophoric? Based on the content of the article, what word was ellipted?

Can you translate into Hungarian the first five sentences?
The ellipted element is "prosecuted", which may be recovered from the context ("got away with", "The matter was referred to the attention of both the Director of Public Prosecutions and the Attorney-General"). It can be translated into Hungarian if the missing element is brought into the first sentence, losing the stylistic effect.

Task 13: Look at this extract. What has been ellipted in the last line?
… than butter.

Task 16: Where does this conversation take place? Who are the participants? What is needed for the interpretation of this text? Discuss the questions below.
This register is called *Airspeak, or air traffic control English or Aviation English.*

TASK 18: What registers are mixed together in the following extract to achieve a humorous effect?
The register of *romantic stories* is mixed with the register of *advertising.*

Chapter 10

Task 1: What (speech) acts do these utterances perform?

- *I now pronounce you married.* – Marrying
- *I name this ship Enterprise.* – Naming
- *You are under arrest.* – Arresting
- *I promise that I shall be there.* – Promising
- *I declare the meeting open.* – Opening a meeting
- *Would you like some tea?* – Offering
- *Stand to attention!* – Ordering
- *This is my house.* – Giving information
- *Love one another.* – Commanding
- *Do not drink so much. I advise you not to drink so much.* – Advising
- *It will give you a headache. I warn you that it will give you a headache.* – Warning

Task 4: Read this extract form a newspaper article and discuss why an impolite, insulting word can be used amiably.

Insulting words may be used jokingly among friends, without giving offence.

Chapter 11

Task 1: Translate.
Keményen iszik.
Minden tanár blöfföl.
Nem volt hajlandó nyilatkozni.
Az időjárásjelentés szerint esni fog.
Az elmúlt tíz évben jelentős változások történtek az oktatási rendszerünkben.
I don't think he will come.
The strike has brought traffic in the capital to a standstill.
The first half of the 19th century saw significant economic and political development in Hungary.

Task 2: Translate, using antonymic translation.
I forgot to give him/her a ring.
The cause of the fire is yet to be determined.
Diplomatic relations were not restored until after the regime change.

Task 3: Translate, using addition.
a Földközi-tenger; a csendes-óceáni partvidék; a Vitginia állambeli Alexandria polgármestere; the football club Fradi; the rock opera Stephen, the King; the folk band Muzsikás

Task 4: Translate, using distribution.
A. *A földalatti mozgólépcsőkön a kutyákat kézbe kell venni.*
A csúcstalálkozó szigorú biztonsági intézkedések közepette nyílt meg.
B. Ø ('verbally abuse gypsies')*;* Ø ('verbally abuse Jews'); Ø (pose as a true Hungarian')*; tabloidisation of the press; going to a restaurant on Sundays*

Task 5: Identify the transfer operations in these translations.
Despite its unfortunate appearance … Grammatical replacement: change of word class
The last decade has seen… Grammatical replacement: change of subject
This was the hardest-hit… Grammatical replacement: change of subject + addition
There was a growl. – Egy kutya morgása hallatszott. Grammatical replacement: change of subject + addition

Task 6: Identify the transfer operations in this translation.
Tentative[129] solutions:
Grammatical replacement: 2, 12, 21;
Addition: 7, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29;
Omission, contraction: 3, 13, 19, 22;
Generalisation, concretisation: 1, 5, 16, 18, 25;
Antonymic translation: 17.

Task 8: Study the following Google translation of a literary text. Discuss why the machine mistranslated some parts of the text. Compare the translation with a human translation.
Újra töltött: polysemy of *töltött;* ambiguity of reference due to divergent categories *(he/she/it)*
makrancoskodott, félrespriccelt – difficult-to-define contextual meanings
nyaka közé – divergent categories: *between and among*
nincs húsvét, urak – cultural reference

Task 9: Compare the following source text to its google translation. How much post-editing is necessary?
No corrections are needed.

[129] The adjective *tentative* indicates that in some cases it is difficult to assign a translation solution to a particular category.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1.
Major contrastive linguistics projects

Mainly in the period between 1960 and 1980, a number of contrastive linguistic projects were in progress in Europe, supported by the Center of Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C. The most important projects and their leaders were the following:

- Danish and English (Klaus Faerch),
- Dutch and English (Sharwood Smith),
- Finnish and English (Kari Sajavaara and Jaakko Lehtonen),
- German and English (Gerhard Nickel),
- Hungarian and English (László Dezső and William Nemser; Éva Stephanides),
- Polish and English (Jacek Fisiak),
- Romanian and English (Dumitru Chițoran),
- Serbo-Croatian and English (Rudolf Filipović),
- Swedish and English (Jan Svartvik).

The work put into these projects materialised in a number of working papers and edited volumes as well as several contrastive grammars. The Polish–English project started a journal in 1973, called *Papers and Studies in Contrastive Linguistics.* This journal was published until 1998, when it changed its name to *Poznań Studies in Contemporary Linguistics.* The *Dutch–English Research Project in Utrecht* started the journal *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* (1978–1985), the forerunner of *Second Language Research* journal. The Finnish–English Cross–Language Project at the University of Jyväskylä published the series *Jyväskylä Cross-Language Studies* (1972–1989), edited by Sajavaara and Lehtonen.

After 1990, with the advent of corpora, corpus-based contrastive studies have proliferated. A new journal called *Languages in Contrast* was started by John Benjamins Publishers in 1998.

The following lists contain A) the most important contrastive linguistics books and edited volumes, B) contrastive grammars, and C) a selection of Hungarian–English contrastive studies.

a) Books and edited volumes

Aijmer, Karin and Altenberg, Bengt (eds): *Advances in Corpus-Based Contrastive Linguistics. Studies in Honour of Stig Johansson,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 2013.

Altenberg, Bengt and Granger, Sylviane (eds): *Lexis in Contrast. Corpus-Based Approaches,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 2002.

Czulo, Oliver and Hansen-Schirra, Silvia (eds): *Crossroads Between Contrastive Linguistics, Translation Studies and Machine Translation,* Berlin, Language Science Press, 2017.

Fisiak, Jacek (ed.): *Contrastive Linguistics and the Language Teacher,* Oxford, Pergamon, 1981.

Fries, Charles Carpenter: *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language.* Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1945.

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Hartmann, Reinhard R. K.: *Contrastive Textology. [Studies in Descriptive Linguistics 5],* Heidelberg, Julius Groos Verlag, 1980.

Hawkins, John: *A Comparative Typology of English and German. Unifying the Contrasts,* London, Croom Helm, 1986.

Hellinger, Marlis and Ammon, Ulrich (eds.): *Contrastive Sociolinguistics,* Berlin, Mouton de Gruyter, 1996

James, Carl: *Contrastive Analysis,* Harlow, Longman, 1980.

Jarvis, Scott and Pavlenko, Aneta: *Crosslinguistic influence in language and cognition,* New York, Routledge, 2010.

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Mair, Christian and Markus, Manfred (eds): *New Departures in Contrastive Linguistics/ Neue Ansätze in der kontrastiven Linguistik,* Innsbruck, Institut für Anglistik, 1992.

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Nickel, Gerhard: *Papers in Contrastive Linguistics,* Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1971.

Ringbom, Hakan: *The role of the first language in foreign language learning,* Clevedon, Avon, Multilingual Matters, 1987.

Svartvik, Jan (ed.): *Errata. Papers in Error Analysis,* Lund, CWK Gleerup, 1973.

B) Contrastive grammars

Aarts, E. G.A.M. and Wekker, H. Chr.: *A Contrastive Grammar of English and Dutch. Contrastieve grammatica Engels / Nederlands,* Dordrecht, Springer Science, 1987.

Gast, Volker and König, Ekkehard: *Understanding English–German Contrasts. 4th edition*, Erich Schmidt Verlag, 2018. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/325796110_Understanding_English-german_ Contrasts_4th_edition. Accessed Aug 22 2020

Hellinger, Marlis: *Kontrastive Grammatik Deutsch–Englisch. Anglistische Arbeitshefte,* Tübingen, Max Niemeyer Verlag, 1977.

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Lohnes, Walter and Hopkins, Edwin (eds): *The Contrastive Grammar of English and German,* Ann Arbor, Karoma, 1982.

Marzo, Stefania, Heylen, Kris, and DE Sutter, Gert: *Corpus Studies in Contrastive Linguistics,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 2012.

Moulton, William G.: *The Sounds of English and German,* Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1962.

Salkoff, Morris: *A French–English Grammar. A contrastive grammar on translational principles,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia, John Benjamins, 1999.

Stockwell, P. Robert, Bowen, J. Donald, and Martin, W. John: *The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish, Contrastive Structures Series,* Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1965.

C) Studies on Hungarian–English lexical contrasts

András, László: Spatial Adjectives: An English–Hungarian Contrastive Study, in László Dezső and William Nemser (eds): *Studies in English and Hungarian Contrastive Linguistics,* Budapest, Akadémiai Kiadó, 1980, 453–490.

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Appendix 2

Task 9, Chapter 7: study an extract from *Úri muri* (by Zsigmond Móricz)[130] and its translation into English. Identify Hungarian culture-specific items and see how they were translated into English.

– Hát a nagyapám elment. Rászánta magát, pedig nemesember volt, de még három gimnáziumja is vót a madarasi kollégiumban, ahol a pap meg a mester meg a szomszéd falubéli kovács vótak a professzorok... szóval, nagyapám a hétszilvafás domíniumból egy és egyharmad fát örökölt, osztán megházasodott, gyerekeket nemzett, mint a Biblia mondja, s a sok síp addig trombitált, míg belátta, hogy egyébre nem való, csak hogy államhivatalnok legyék belőle. *– Angyali.* *– Ősi vagyonát elzálogosította, csak egyet nem, a nemesi kevélységet.* *Vastagon s keményen nevettek össze. Ezekben is mind megvolt ez a vér, mintha hájjal kenegették volna őket, olyan jóízűen nevetgéltek Csulinak minden szaván. Mert a magyar kisúr erre a legbüszkébb, minden tulajdona közt, arra hogy ő „büszke". Mindegy, hogy mire. Egyik a lovára, más a tajtékpipájára, van, aki a tehetségére, van, aki butaságára, de az a fontos, hogy „büszke! kevély! fenn hordja az orrát..." az istennek se tér ki... Nézd, hogy dagad a nyaka ereje, nem is harcol, csak megfeszíti.* *– Hát a nagyapám első hivatalos dógába megy a megyeszékhelyre, az alispán elé.* *– Nohát, mi járatba van? – kérdezi az alispán.*	*'My grandfather went in for it. He made up his mind, although he was a nobleman, and he even had three educations, in the college of Madaras, where the priest, the schoolmaster and the smith from the next village were the teachers... Anyway, my grandfather inherited his tiny share of the property, then got married, begat children, as the Bible says, and generally lived it up, until he realised that there was nothing for it, but he'd have to become a civil servant.'* *'Marvellous.'* *'He'd mortgaged the family property, except for one thing, the pride of a nobleman.'* *Fat, tough, they exchanged looks. That blood was in them, too, it was as if they were greased with lard, so heartily did they laugh at Csuli's every word. For it is the proudest of the properties of the Hungarian kisúr[25] that he is proud. It does not matter of what. One is proud of his horse, another of his meerschaum pipe, another of his cleverness, some of their stupidity, but the important thing is that he will not at any price give up being proud, arrogant and conceited. Look how the power swells in his neck, and he's not fighting, just stretching it.* *'So my grandfather's first official task was to appear in the County Court, before the alispán.'* *'Now then, what's it all about?', asked the alispán.*

[130] Móricz Zsigmond: *Úri muri*, 1982. Budapest: Móra. http://mek.oszk.hu/01400/01431/01431.htm. Móricz, Zsigmond: *Very Merry*, Translated by Adams, B., Budapest, Corvina, 2008.

Nézi az alispán az írást, sok benne a helyesírási zűrzavar. *– Mi vót azelőtt?* *Nagyapám a mellére üt. – Hazafi!...* *– Jó van – aszongya az alispán –, oszt mi járatban van kend?* *– Kend?* *Elképed a nagyapám, kikerekedik a szeme a helyibül...* *– Micsoda?... Ki a kend?... Ha én kend, kend is kend!...* *Sarkon fordult s visszament az egy és háromfertály szilvafája alá...* *Úri muri, 6. fejezet*	*The alispán looked at his submission, which was full of spelling mistakes.* *'What were you previously?'* *My grandfather struck his chest. 'A patriot!'* *'Very well', said the alispán, 'in that case, what's your business, my good man?'* *'Your what?'* *My grandfather was thunderstruck.* *'What? ... Who are you calling your good man? ... If I'm your good man, you're mine as well!'* *He turned on his heel and went back to his bit of land. (p. 63)* [25] *Kisúr: 'Small úr', an úr with relatively little land or wealth, as opposed to a nagyúr, 'geat úr'. Not a precise term.*

APPENDIX 3
SOCIOPRAGMATIC FAILURE BETWEEN A KOREAN AND AN ENGLISH SPEAKER[131]

A: – What nice things you have!
B: – Thank you. It took me a long time to pack.
A: – But your clothes are too tiny. You're so thin. How much do you weigh?
B: – Uh, well… I'm not sure.
A: – Not sure! You're about 52 kilos, aren't you?
B: – Uhm, well…
A: – My scale is in the bathroom. Let's weigh you now.
B: – Uhm, thank you, really. That's OK.

APPENDIX 4
LEXICAL TRANSFER OPERATIONS[132]

1 Narrowing of meaning (differentiation and specification)
   1.1 Specification of parts of the body
   1.2 Specification of reporting verbs
   1.3 Specification of inchoative verbs
   1.4 Specification of semantically depleted verbs

[131] Eun-Sook Jeong: Overcoming Pragmatic Failure. *Modern English Education* 7 (1), 2005, 3–15.
[132] Klaudy, Kinga: *Languages in Translation,* Budapest, Scholastica, 2007.

2 Broadening of meaning (generalisation)
   2.1 Generalisation of parts of the body
   2.2 Generalisation of times of the day
   2.3 Generalisation of realia
   2.4 Generalisation of reporting verbs
   2.5 Generalisation of semantically rich verbs

3 Contraction of meanings
   3.1 Contraction of kinship terms
   3.2 Contraction motivated by word formation potential
   3.3 Integration of inchoative verbs into the main verb
   3.4 Integration of adverbs of manner into reporting verbs
   3.5 Merging change of state verbs with adjectives
   3.6 Merging semantically depleted verbs with nouns

4 Distribution of meaning
   4.1 Distribution of meaning in kinship terms
   4.2 Distribution of meaning in complex nouns
   4.3 Distribution of meaning in paraphrasing translation
   4.4 Distribution of meaning in inchoative verbs
   4.5 Separation of adverbs of manner
   4.6 Distribution of meaning in reporting verbs
   4.7 Distribution of meaning in change of state verbs
   4.8 Distribution of meaning in semantically rich verbs

5 Omission of meaning
   5.1 Omission of brand names
   5.2 Omission of toponyms
   5.3 Omission of toponyms and ethnonyms used in attributive function
   5.4 Omission of institutional names
   5.5 Omission of forms of address
   5.6 Omissions of references to SL
   5.7 Omission of names of parts of the body

6 Addition of meaning
   6.1 Addition in the case of brand names
   6.2 Addition in the case of toponyms
   6.3 Addition in the case of institutional names
   6.4 Addition in the case of historical realia
   6.5 Addition of names of parts of the body

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